



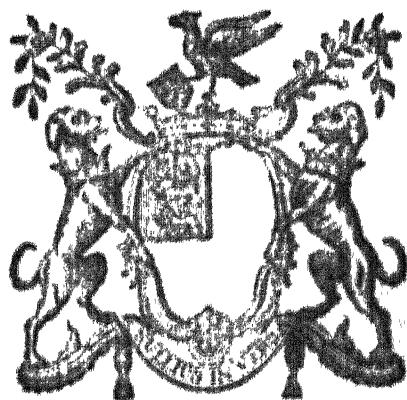
AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE  
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PHILOSOPHICAL  
TRANSACTIONS,  
OF THE  
ROYAL SOCIETY  
OF  
LONDON.

VOL. LXVII. For the Year 1777.

PART I.



LONDON,

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MDCCLXXVII.



It is likewise necessary on this occasion to remark, that it is an established rule of the Society, to which they will always adhere, never to give their opinion, as a body, upon any subject, either of Nature or Art, that comes before them. And therefore the thanks, which are frequently proposed from the chair, to be given to the authors of such papers, as are read at their accustomed meetings, or to the persons through whose hands they receive them, are to be considered in no other light than as a matter of civility, in return for the respect shewn to the Society by those communications. The like also is to be said with regard to the several projects, inventions, and curiosities of various kinds, which are often exhibited to the Society ; the authors whereof, or those who exhibit them, frequently take the liberty to report, and even to certify in the public news-papers, that they have met with the highest applause and approbation. And therefore it is hoped, that no regard will hereafter be paid to such reports, and public notices ; which in some instances have been too lightly credited, to the dishonour of the Society.



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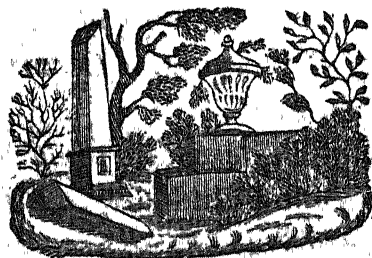
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# PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS.

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- I. *An Account of a Woman in the Shire of Ross living without Food or Drink. By Dr. Mackenzie, Physician at New Tarbat. Communicated by the Right Honourable James Stewart Mackenzie, Lord Privy Seal of Scotland.*

TO SIR JOHN PRINGLE, BART. P. R. S.

S I R,  
Read Nov. 7,  
1776.

Hill-Street,  
June 5, 1776.

I HERE inclose the case of the fasting woman in Ross-shire, authenticated by Mr. MAC LEOD the sheriff, and several justices of the peace of that county; that, in case you shall think it worthy to have a place in the Philosophical Transactions, it may be inserted therein.

I am, with great regard, SIR,

Your most obedient humble servant,

J. S. MACKENZIE.

VOL. LXVII.

B

JANET



JANET MAC LEOD, unmarried, aged thirty-three years and some months, daughter of DONALD MAC LEOD, tenant in Croick, in the parish of Kincardine, and shire of Ross; in the fifteenth year of her age had a pretty sharp epileptic fit: she had till then been in perfect health, and continued so till about four years thereafter, when she had a second fit, which lasted a whole day and night; and a few days afterwards, she was seized with a fever of several weeks continuance, from which she had a slow and very tedious recovery of several months.

During this period she lost the natural power of her eye-lids, was under the necessity of keeping them open with the fingers of one hand, when she had any thing to do with the other, went out, or wanted to look about her; in every other respect she was in health and tolerable spirits, only here it may be fit to remark, that she never had the least appearance of the *menfes*, but periodically spit up blood in pretty large quantities, and at the same time it flowed from the nose. This vicarious discharge, according to her mother's report, happened regularly every month for several years.

About five years ago, a little before which time the abovementioned periodical discharge had disappeared, she had a short third epileptic fit, which was immediately suc-

ceeded by a fever of about a week's continuance, and of which she recovered so slowly that she had not been out of doors till six weeks after the crisis; when, without the knowledge of her parents or any of the family (who were all busied in the harvest-field) she stole out of the house, and bound the corn of a ridge before they observed her. On that same evening she took to her bed complaining much of her heart and head; and since, she has never risen out of it except when lifted, has seldom spoken a word, and has had so little craving for food that at first it was by downright compulsion her parent could get her to take as much as would support a sucking infant: afterwards she gradually fell off from taking even that small quantity; insomuch that, at Whitsuntide 1763, she totally refused food and drink, and her jaw became so fast locked, that it was with the greatest difficulty her father was able with a knife or other method to open her teeth so as to admit a little thin gruel or whey and of which so much generally run out at the corner of her mouth, that they could not be sensible that any of it had been swallowed.

Much about this time, that is, about four years ago they got a bottle of the water from a noted medicinal spring in Brea-mar, of which they endeavoured to get her to swallow a part, by pouring some out of a spoon

between her lips (her jaws all the while fast-locked) but it all run out. With this, however, they rubbed her throat and jaws, and continued the trial to make her swallow, rubbing her throat with the water that run out of her mouth for three mornings together. On the third morning during this operation, she cried, Give me more water; when all that remained of the bottle was given her, which she swallowed with ease. These were the only words she spoke for almost a year, and she continued to mutter some more (which her parents understood) for twelve or fourteen days, after which she spoke none, and rejected, as formerly, all sorts of nourishment and drink, till some time in the month of July 1765, when a sister of hers thought, by some signs that she made, that she wanted her jaws opened; which her father, not without violence, got done, by putting the handle of a horn-spoon between her teeth. She said then intelligibly, Give me a drink; and drank with ease, and all at one draught, about an English pint of water. Her father then asked her, Why she would not make some signs, although she could not speak, when she wanted a drink? She answered, why should she when she had no desire. At this period they kept the jaws asunder with a bit of wood, imagining she got her speech by her jaws being opened, and continued them thus wedged for about twenty days,

though in the first four or five days she had wholly lost the power of utterance. At last they removed the wedge, as it gave her uneasiness, and made her lips sore. At this time she was sensible of every thing done or said about her; and when her eye-lids were opened for her, she knew every body; and when the neighbours in their visits would be bemoaning her condition, they could observe a tear stand in her eye.

In some of the attempts to open her jaws, two of the under fore-teeth were forced out; of which opening they often endeavoured to avail themselves, by putting some thin nourishing drink into her mouth; but without effect, for it always returned by the corners; and, about a twelvemonth ago, they thought of thrusting a little dough of oatmeal through this gap of the teeth, which she would retain a few seconds, and then return with something like a straining to vomit, without one particle going down: nor has the family been sensible, though observing, of any appearance like that of swallowing, for now four years, excepting the small draught of Brea-mar water and the English pint of common water; and for the last three years she has not had any evacuation by stool or urine, except that, once or twice a week, she has passed a few drops of urine, as the parents express it, about as much as would wet the surface.

face of a half-penny; and even small as this quantity is, it gives her some uneasiness till she voids it: for they know all her motions, and when they see her thus uneasy, they carry her to the door of the house, where she makes these few drops. Nor have they, in all these three years, ever discovered the smallest wetting in her bed; in proof of which, notwithstanding her being so long bed-ridden, there has never been the least excoriation, though she never attempts to turn herself, or makes any motion with hand, head, or foot, but lies like a log of wood. Her pulse to-day, which with some difficulty I felt (her mother at this time having raised her, and supported her in her bed) is distinct and regular, slow, and to the extreme degree small. Her countenance is clear and pretty fresh, her features not disfigured nor sunk; her skin feels natural both as to touch and warmth; and to my astonishment, when I came to examine her body, for I expected to feel a skeleton, I found her breasts round, and prominent, like those of a healthy young woman; her legs, arms, and thighs, not at all emaciated; the *abdomen* somewhat tumid, and the muscles tense; her knees bent, and her ham-strings tight as a bow-string; her heels almost close to the *nates*. When they struggle with her, to put a little water within her lips, they observe sometimes a dewy softness on her skin;

skin; she sleeps much, and very quiet; but when awake keeps a constant whimpering like a new-born weakly infant, and sometimes makes an effort to cough. At present no degree of strength can force open her jaws. I put the point of my little finger into the gap in her teeth, and found the tongue, as far as I could reach, soft and moist; as I did with my other fingers the mouth and cheeks quite to the back teeth. She never can remain a moment on her back, but always falls to one side or to the other; and when her mother sat behind her in the bed, and supported her while I was examining her body, her head hung down, with her chin close to her breast, nor could I with any force move it backwards, the anterior muscles of the neck being rigid, like a person in the *emprosthotonos*, and in this posture she constantly lies.

The above case was taken in writing this day, at the diseased woman's bed-side, from the mouths of her father and mother, who are known to be people of great veracity, and are under no temptation to deceive; for they neither ask, expect, or get any thing: their daughter's situation is a very great mortification to them, and universally known and regretted by all their neighbours. I had along with me, as interpreters<sup>(a)</sup>, Mr. Henry Robertson, a very discreet young gentleman, eldest son

(a) The family spoke only Erse.

to the minister of the parish, and David Ross, at the Craig of Strath-Carron, their neighbour and one of the elders of the parish, who verified from his own knowledge all that is above related. The present situation and appearances of the patient were carefully examined this 21st of October, 1767, by Dr. ALEXANDER MACKENZIE, physician at New Tarbat; who likewise, in the month of October, 1772, being informed that the patient was recovering and ate and drank, visited her, and found her condition to be as follows: about a year preceding this last date, her parents one day returning from their country labours (having left their daughter as for some years before fixed to her bed) were greatly surprized to find her sitting on her hams, on the side of the house opposite to her bed-place, spinning with her mother's distaff. I asked, whether she ever ate or drank? whether she had any of the natural evacuations? whether she ever spoke or attempted to speak? And was answered, that she sometimes crumbled a bit of oat or barley cake in the palm of her hand, as if to feed a chicken; that she put little crumbs of this into the gap of her teeth, rolled them about for some time in her mouth, and then sucked out of the palm of her hand a little water, whey, or milk; and this once or twice a day, and even that by compulsion: that the *egesta* were in proportion

proportion to the *ingesta*; that she never attempted to speak; that her jaws were still fast-locked, her hamstrings tight as before, and her eyes shut. On my opening her eye-lids I found the eye-balls turned up under the edge of the *os frontis*, her countenance ghastly, her complexion pale, her skin shrivelled and dry, and her whole person rather emaciated; her pulse with the utmost difficulty to be felt. She seemed sensible and tractable in every thing, except in taking food; for, at my request, she went through her different exercises, spinning on the distaff, and crawling about on her hams, by the wall of the house, with the help of her hands: but when she was desired to eat, she shewed the greatest reluctance, and indeed cried before she yielded; and this was no more than, as I have said, to take a few crumbs as to feed a bird, and to suck half a spoonful of milk from the palm of her hand. On the whole, her existence was little less wonderful now than when I first saw her, when she had not swallowed the smallest particle of food for years together. I attributed her thinness and wan complexion, that is the great change of her looks from what I had first seen when fixed to her bed, to her exhausting too much of the *saliva* by spinning flax on the distaff, and therefore recommended her being totally confined to spinning wool; this she does with equal dexterity.



as she did the flax. The above was her situation in October, 1772; and within these eight days I have been told by a neighbour of her father's, that she still continues in the same way, without any addition to her support, and without any additional ailment.

New Tarbat,  
April 3, 1775.

ALEX. MACKENZIE.

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At Croick, the fifteenth Day of June, 1775.

TO authenticate the history set forth in the preceding pages, DONALD MAC LEOD, of Granics esq. sheriff depute of Ross-shire, GEORGE MUNRO esq. of Cuteain, SIMON ROSS esq. of Gladfield, Captain GEORGE SUTHERLAND of Elphin, all justices of the peace; Messieurs WILLIAM SMITH preacher of the gospel, JOHN BARCLAY writer in Tain, HUGH ROSS student of divinity, and ALEXANDER MAC LEOD, did come to this place, accompanied by the above Dr. ALEXANDER MACKENZIE physician at New Tarbat, and after explaining the purport and meaning of the above history to DONALD MAC LEOD father to JANET MAC LEOD above-mentioned, and to DAVID ROSS elder in the parish of Kincardin, who lives in the close neighbourhood of this place, and was one of the doctor's original interpreters; they, to our full satisfaction, after  
a minute

a minute examination, authenticate all the facts set forth in the above account: and, for our further satisfaction, we had JANET MAC LEOD brought out before us to the open air, when the doctor discovered a very great improvement in her looks and health since the period of his having seen her last, as now she walked tolerably upright, with a little hold by the wall. And notwithstanding her age, which, upon inquiry, we found to be exactly as set forth in the above account, her countenance and looks would have denoted her not to be above twenty years of age at most. At present, the quantity of food she uses is not above what would be necessary for the sustenance of an infant of two years of age. And we do report, from our knowledge of the above men, and the circumstances of the case, that full faith and credit is to be given to every article of the above history.

WILLIAM SMITH.

JOHN BARCLAY, N. P.

HUGH ROSS.

ALEX<sup>R</sup>. M<sup>C</sup> LEOD.

DON<sup>D</sup>. M<sup>C</sup> LEOD, SH. DEP.

GEO. MUNRO, J. P.

SIMON ROSS, J. P.

GEO. SUTHERLAND, J. P.



*II. On the Usefulness of washing and rubbing the Stems of Trees, to promote their Annual Increase. In an Extract of a Letter from Mr. Marsham to the Lord Bishop of Bath and Wells.*

Read Nov. 14,  
1776.

I HAD for several years intended to put in practice the celebrated Dr. HALES advice of washing, with that of Mr. EVELYN of rubbing the stem of a tree, in order to increase its growth; but other avocations prevented me till the last spring: when, as soon as the buds began to swell, I washed my tree round from the ground to the beginning of the head; *viz.* between thirteen and fourteen feet in height. This was done first with water and a stiff shoe-brush, until the tree was quite cleared of the moss and dirt; then I only washed it with a coarse flannel. I repeated the washing three, four, or five times a week, during all the dry time of the spring and the fore-part of the summer; but after the rains were frequent, I very seldom washed. The unwashed tree, whose growth I proposed to compare with it, was (at five feet from the ground) before the last year's increase, 3 ft. 7 in.  $\frac{2}{10}$ ths; and in the autumn, after the

7

year's

year's growth was compleated, 3 ft. 9 in.  $\frac{1}{10}$ th; *viz.* increase 1 in.  $\frac{2}{10}$ ths. The washed tree was last spring 3 ft. 7 in.  $\frac{2}{10}$ ths, and in the autumn it was 3 ft. 9 in.  $\frac{7}{10}$ ths; *viz.* increase 2 in.  $\frac{5}{10}$ ths, that is, one-tenth of an inch above double the increase of the unwashed tree. As the difference was so great, and as some unknown accident might have injured the growth of the unwashed tree, I added the year's increase of five other beeches of the same age (*viz.* all that I had measured), and found the aggregate increase of the six unwashed beeches to be 9 in.  $\frac{3}{10}$ ths, which, divided by six, gives one inch and five-tenths and an half for the growth of each tree; so the gain by washing is nine-tenths and an half. To make the experiment fairly, I fixed on two of my largest beeches, sown in 1741, and transplanted into a grove in 1749. The washed tree had been, from the first year, the largest plant till the year 1767, when its rival became and continued the largest plant, until I began to wash the other: therefore I fixed on the less thriving tree as the fairest trial. The trees were nearly of the same height and shape, spreading a circle of about fifty feet diameter. I think it necessary to mention these circumstances; for I know by experience, that a short and spreading tree, having ample room, will increase twice or three times, and perhaps four times as much, as a tall small-headed tree.

tree of the same age, that stands near other trees. Thus my washed beech increased above six times as much as Mr. DRAKE's beautiful beech at Shardeloes, though that tree seemed in good health when I saw it in 1759 and 1766. But it increased only 2 in.  $\frac{2}{10}$ ths in those seven years; which may perhaps be owing to its vast height, being seventy-four feet and a half to the boughs (as the late knight of the shire for Suffolk, Sir JOHN ROUS, told me that Mr. DRAKE had informed him) only six feet and four inches round, and having a small head, and little room to spread.

Stratton, Oct. 29, 1775.



III. *Discoveries on the Sex of Bees, explaining the Manner in which their Species is propagated; with an Account of the Utility that may be derived from those Discoveries by the actual Application of them to Practice.* By Mr. John Debraw, Apothecary to Addenbrook's Hospital at Cambridge, and Member of an Oeconomical Society in the Principality of Liege in Westphalia. Communicated by the Rev. Nevil Maskelyne, B. D. F. R. S. and Astronomer Royal.

Read Nov. 21, 1776. **T**HE republic of bees has at all times gained universal esteem and admiration: their culture, an object so worthy of our attention, has attracted and still does engage that of many of the learned, and has arrived at a considerable degree of improvement of late years; but their mode of propagating their species seems to this day to have baffled the ingenuity of ages in their attempts to discover it. The most skilful naturalists have been strangely misled in their opinion, that the bees, as well as the other tribes of animals, are perpetuated by copulation; though they acknowledge

acknowledge that they have never been able to detect them in the act.

PLINY, who was likewise of the same opinion, that in this particular they do not differ from other animals, observes, "*Apium coitus visus est nunquam.*" SWAMMERDAM, that sagacious observer, having never been able to discover it, entertained a notion, that the female or queen bee was fecundated without copulation; that it was sufficient for her to be near the males; that a vivifying *aura*, exhaling from the body of the males, and absorbed by the female, might impregnate her eggs. At last the incomparable REAUMUR thought he had in a great measure removed the veil, and brought their manner of generating nearly to a proof. This part of physics has been the principal object of my researches for several years past, having been insensibly engaged in it by the pleasure I took in so curious an inquiry; and although this pursuit has been attended with more difficulties and embarrassments than can be well imagined, I have not been discouraged, and have carefully avoided launching into conjectures. To introduce a new system in the doctrine of bees, which in a great measure contradicts all former received opinions, requires, previous to its appearance, every sanction the various experiments, successfully repeated, can possibly give it. The results of those experiments,

ments, made all in glass-hives, which carry with them an entire evidence, afford sufficient reasons to assert, that bees belong to that class of animals among which, although they have sexes, a true copulation cannot be proved; and that their *ova*, like the spawn of fishes, most probably owe their fecundation to an impregnation from the males, as will appear in the sequel of this narrative.

I am not a little pleased to find that the celebrated MARALDI had such a notion, and I lament his neglecting to confirm it. He says, in his *Observations upon Bees*, in the History of the Academy of Sciences for the year 1712, p. 332: *Nous n'avons pu découvrir jusqu'à présent de quelle maniere se fait cette fécondation, si c'est dans le corps de la femelle, ou bien si c'est à la maniere des poissons, après que la femelle a posé ses œufs: la matiere blanchâtre dont l'œuf est environné au fond de l'alvéole peu de temps après sa naissance, semble conforme à la dernière opinion, aussi bien que les remarques faites plusieurs fois d'un grand nombre d'œufs qui sont restés inféconds au fond de l'alvéole autour desquels nous n'avons point vu cette matiere.*

“ We never yet were able to discover in what manner  
 “ this fecundation is performed; whether it is in the body  
 “ of the female, or whether it is after the manner of  
 “ fishes, after the female or queen-bee has deposited  
 “ her eggs: that liquid whitish substance, with which  
 Vol. LXVII. D. “ each



“ each egg is furrounded at the bottom of the cell a  
 “ little while after its being laid, feemingly establiſhing  
 “ this laſt opinion, as well as the frequent remarks made  
 “ of a great number of eggs remaining barren in the cell,  
 “ round which we could not ſee the above-mentioned  
 “ whitish ſubſtance.”

This ingenious naturaliſt, by a nice examination of the ſtructure of the drones, had, as well as SWAMMERDAM, diſcovered ſome reſemblances to the male organs of generation; and from thence conjectured, they were the males of the bee-inſect; but he owns, with the reſt, that he never could diſcover them in the act of copulation.

Having ſtood the trials of ſo many prying eyes in every age, the bees, as has been obſerved by an ingenious author, had gained the character of an inviolable chaſtity, till REAUMUR blaſted their reputation. He makes the queen no better than a MESSALINA<sup>(a)</sup>; though he could ſee no more than what would raiſe a mere jealousy or generate ſuſpicions.

In order to be the better underſtood in the relation of my own experiments on the fecundation of bees, I here preſent the outlines of the opinions adopted by the above-mentioned naturaliſts on that head. They aſſert that the

[a] Vid. JUVENAL, Sat. vi. ver. 128.

queen is the only female in the hive, and the mother of the next generation; that the drones are the males by which she is fecundated; and that the working bees, or bees that collect wax on the flowers, that knead it and form from it the combs and cells which they afterwards fill with honey, are of neither sex.

But of late Mr. SCHIRACH, a German naturalist, has given us a very different view of the classes that constitute the republic of bees, in an ingenious publication in his own language, under the title of *The Natural History of the Queen of the Bees*, which has been since translated into French; an account of which has been given in the Monthly Review, from which I beg leave to relate the author's doctrine with regard to the working-bees only; the quality and functions of the drones being points which do not appear to be yet settled by Mr. SCHIRACH himself. He affirms, that all the common bees are females in disguise, in which the organs that distinguish the sex, and particularly the *ovaria*, are obliterated, or at least, through their excessive minuteness, have not yet been observed: that every one of those bees in the earlier period of its existence is capable of becoming a queen-bee, if the whole community should think proper to nurse it in a particular manner, and raise it to that rank. In

short, that the queen-bee lays only two kinds of eggs; viz. those that are to produce the drones, and those from which the working-bees are to proceed.

The trials made by Mr. SCHIRACH seem to evince the truth of his conclusions in the most satisfactory manner, singular as they appear to be at first sight; and indeed in my own judgement, from the constant happy result of my numerous experiments, which I began near two years before Mr. SCHIRACH's publication, and repeated every season since, I am enabled to pronounce on their reality.

Chance I own befriended me in that discovery, whilst I was most anxiously endeavouring to ascertain the use of drones. It was in the spring of the year 1770, that I for the first time discovered what MARALDI had only conjectured, I mean the impregnation of the eggs by the males, and that I was made acquainted with the difference of size in the drones or males observed by MARALDI in his *Observations upon Bees*, inserted in the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences for the year 1712, p. 333. in these words:

*Nous avons trouvée depuis peu une grande quantité de bourdons, beaucoup plus petits que ceux que nous avions remarqué auparavant, et qui ne surpassent point la grandeur des petites abeilles; de sorte qu'il n'auroit pas été aisé*

*de les distinguer dans cette ruche de abeilles ordinaires, sans le grand nombre que nous y en avons trouvé. Il se pourroit bien faire que dans les ruches où l'on n'a pas trouvé de gros bourdons, il y en eût de ces petits, et qu'ils y aient été confondus avec le reste des abeilles, lorsque nous ne savions pas encore qu'il y en eût de cette taille.* “ We have of late found a great quantity of drones much smaller than those we had formerly observed, and which do not exceed in size the common bees; so that it would not have been easy to distinguish them in that hive from the common bees, had not the quantity of them been very considerable. It might certainly have happened that in those hives, where we have not been able to discover large drones, there were a great number of those little ones, which may have been intermixed among common bees when we were yet ignorant that any such small drones were existing.”

REAUMUR himself, p. 591. of his Natural History of Insects, says, “ We have likewise found drones that were no bigger than the common bees.”

They have notwithstanding escaped the observation of Mr. SCHIRACH, and of his friend Mr. HADDORE member of an Academy in Lusatia, who, in a memoir he presented in the year 1769, annihilates entirely the use of drones in a hive; and advances this singular opinion,

opinion, that the queen-bee of a hive lays eggs which produce young ones, without having any communication with the drones. For what purpose should wife nature then have furnished the drones with that large quantity of feminal liquor? To what use so large an apparatus of fecundating organs, so well described by REAUMUR and MARALDI?

But I beg leave to remark, that those gentlemen seem to have drawn too hasty conclusions from their experiments, in rejecting the drones as bearing no share in the propagation of those insects. Their observations, that hives are peopled at a time of the year when there are no drones in being, is no ways conclusive; as it is evident, that they had seen none but drones of a large size, their silence on the difference in the size of them justifying my remark. But to resume the narrative of my experiments: I had watched my glass-hives<sup>(b)</sup> with indefatigable attention, from the moment the bees, among which I had taken care to leave a large number of drones, were put into them, to the time of the queen laying her eggs, which generally happens the fourth or fifth day. I observed the first or second day (always before the third) from the time the eggs are placed in the cells, that a great number

(b) Glass-hives were used in preference to boxes, for a purpose too obvious to need explaining.

of bees, fastening themselves to one another, hung down in the form of a curtain from the top to the bottom of the hive, in a similar manner they had done before at the time the queen deposited her eggs; an operation which (if we may conjecture at the instincts of insects) seems contrived to hide what is transacting: be that as it will, it answered the purpose of informing me that something was going forward. In fact, I presently after perceived several bees, the size of which through this thick veil (if I may so express myself) I could not rightly distinguish, inserting the posterior part of their bodies each into a cell, and sinking into it, where they continued but a little while. After they had retired, I saw plainly with the naked eye a small quantity of a whitish liquor left in the angle of the basis of each cell, containing an egg: it was less liquid than honey, and had no sweet taste at all. Within a day after, I found this liquor absorbed into the embryo, which on the fourth day is converted into a small worm, to which the working-bees bring a little honey for nourishment, during the first eight or ten days after its birth. After that time they cease to feed them; for they shut up the cells, where these embryos continue inclosed for ten days more, during which time they undergo various changes too tedious here to describe.

To evince the reality of this observation, and to prove that the eggs are fecundated by the males, and that their presence is necessary at the time of breeding, I proceeded to the next experiments. They consisted in leaving in a hive the queen with only the common bees, without any drones, to see whether the eggs she laid would be prolific. I accordingly took a swarm, shook all the bees into a tub of water, and left them in it till they were quite senseless, which gave me an opportunity to distinguish the drones without any danger of being stung. After I had recovered the working-bees and their queen from the state they were in, by spreading them on brown paper in the sun, I replaced them in a glass-hive, where they soon began to work as usual: the queen laid eggs, which I little suspected to be impregnated, as I thought I had separated all the drones or males, and therefore omitted watching the bees; but at the end of twenty days (the usual time of their hatching) I found to my surprize some of the eggs hatched into bees, others withered away, and several of them covered with honey. I immediately inferred that some of the males, having escaped my notice, had impregnated only part of the eggs; but, in order to convince myself of the truth of my supposition, I thought it necessary to take away all the brood-comb that was in the hive, in order to oblige the

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the bees to provide a fresh quantity, being fully determined to watch narrowly their motions after new eggs should be deposited in the cells. This was done accordingly, and at last the mystery was unravelled. On the second day after the eggs were placed in the cells, I perceived the same operation which I have related in a former experiment; I mean, the bees hung down in the form of a curtain, while others thrust the posterior part of their body into the cells: I then introduced my hand into the hive, broke off a piece of the comb containing two of those insects, and kept them for examination. I found in neither of them any sting (a circumstance peculiar to drones only) and upon dissection, by the help of a DOLLOND's microscope, discovered in them the four cylindrical bodies, which contain the glutinous liquor of a whitish colour, observed by MARALDI in the large drones.

Having till then never observed any difference in the size of drones, I immediately perused the Memoirs on Bees published by Mess. MARALDI and REAUMUR, and found that they had remarked it frequently. I have inserted in a preceding page the substance of their observations on that head, as taken from their writings. The reason of that difference must I doubt be placed amongst other *arcana* of nature. I found myself therefore under a necessity in my next experiments to be more particular



in destroying the males, even those which might be suspected to be such.

I once more immersed all the same bees in water; and, when they appeared to be in a senseless state, I gently pressed every one of them between my fingers, in order to distinguish those armed with stings from those that had none, which last I might suspect to be males. Of these I found fifty-seven, exactly of the size of common bees, yielding a little whitish liquor on being pressed between the fingers. I killed every one, and replaced the swarm in a glass-hive, where they immediately applied again to the work of making cells; and on the fourth or fifth day, very early in the morning, I had the pleasure to see the queen-bee depositing her eggs in those cells, which she did by placing the posterior part of her body in each of them. I continued on the watch most part of the ensuing days, but could discover nothing of what I had seen before.

The eggs, after the fourth day, instead of changing in the manner of caterpillars, were found in the same state they were in the first day, except that some of them were covered with honey. But a very singular event happened the next day about noon: all the bees left their own hive, and were seen attempting to get into a neighbouring common hive, on the stool of which I found their queen dead,

having no doubt been slain in the engagement. The manner in which I account for this event is as follows: the great desire of perpetuating their species, which is most observable in these insects, and to which end the concurrence of the males seems so absolutely necessary, made them desert their own habitation where no males were left, in order to fix their residence in a new one, in which, there being a good stock of males, they might the better accomplish their purpose. If this does not yet establish the reader's faith of the necessity of the males bearing a share in the fecundation of the *ova*, the next experiment cannot I presume fail to convince him.

I took the brood-comb which, as I observed before, had not been impregnated; I divided it into two parts; one I placed under a glass-bell N° 1. with honey-comb for the bees' food; I took care to leave a queen, but no drones, among the common bees I confined in it. The other piece of brood-comb I placed under another glass-bell N° 2. with a few drones, a queen, and a number of common bees proportioned to the size of the glass; the rest I disposed of as before. The result was, that in the glass N° 1. no impregnation happened; the eggs remained in the same state they were in when put into the glass; and, upon giving the bees their liberty on the seventh day, they all flew away, as was found to be the case in the for-

mer experiment: whereas in the glass N<sup>o</sup> 2. I saw, the very day after the bees had been put under it, the impregnation of the eggs by the drones in every cell containing eggs; the bees did not leave their hive on receiving their liberty; and, in the course of twenty days, every egg underwent all the above-mentioned necessary changes, and formed a pretty numerous young colony, in which I was not a little startled to find two queens.

Fully satisfied concerning the impregnation of the eggs by the males, I desisted for the present from any further experiments on that head, being exceedingly anxious to endeavour to account for the presence of this new queen.

I conjectured that either two queens, instead of one, must have been left among the bees I had placed under that glass; or else that the bees could, by some particular means of their own, transform a common subject into a queen.

In order to put this to the test, I repeated the experiment with some variation. I got four glass-hives blown flat, which I thought preferable to the bell-shaped ones I had used before, as I could with those better examine what was going forward. I took a large brood-comb from an old hive, and, after having divided it into several pieces, I put some of them, containing eggs, worms, and nymphs, with food, *viz.* honey &c. under each of the glasses;

glasses; and confined within each a sufficient number of common bees, among which I left some drones, but took care that there should be no queen.

The bees finding themselves without a queen, made a strange buzzing noise, which lasted near two days; at the end of which they settled and betook themselves to work: on the fourth day I perceived in each hive the beginning of a royal cell, *a certain indication that one of the inclosed worms would soon be converted into a queen.* The construction of the royal cell being nearly accomplished, I ventured to leave an opening for the bees to get out, and found that they returned as regularly as they do in common hives, and shewed no inclination to desert their habitation. But, to be brief, at the end of twenty days, I observed four young queens among the new progeny.

On relating the result of these experiments to a member of this university, well conversant in the natural history of bees, he deemed it necessary, that they should be repeated, in order the better to establish the truth of a fact seemingly so improbable, that the eggs destined by nature to produce neutral or common bees, should be transformed into females or queens. He started an objection to me, which by the publication of Mr. SCHIRACH appearing a little time after, seems to have been pointed out to that author also by Mr. WITHELM, his

his brother-in-law, namely, that the queen-bee of a hive, besides the eggs which she deposits in the royal cells, might also have laid royal or female eggs either in the common cells, or indiscriminately throughout the different parts of the hive. He further supposed, that in the pieces of brood-comb, which had been successfully employed in the last experiments for the production of a queen, it had constantly happened, that one or more of these royal eggs, or rather the worms proceeding from them, had been contained.

But the force of his objection was removed soon after by the same success having attended a number of other experiments which I since made, an account of which would take up too much room here; and this gentleman, together with Mr. SCHIRACH's brother-in-law, was at last brought to admit, that the working-bees are invested with a power of raising a common subject to the throne, when the community stands in need of a queen; and that accordingly every worm of the hive is capable, under certain circumstances, of becoming the mother of a generation: that it owes its metamorphosis into a queen, partly to the extraordinary size of the cell, and its particular position in it; but principally to a certain nourishment appropriated to the occasion, and carefully administered to it by the working-bees while it is in the worm-state,

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by which, and possibly other means as yet unknown, the developement and expansion of the germ of the female organs, previously existing in the embryos, is effected, and those differences in its form and size are produced, which afterwards so remarkably distinguish the queen from the common working-bees. And finally it appears evident, from the experiments made by Mr. SCHIRACH and myself, that the received opinion, that the queen lays a particular kind of eggs, appropriated to the production of other queens, is erroneous. I am not a little flattered with the similarity of my discoveries with those of the ingenious German naturalist, in proving the sex of the common bees; although we so widely differ in what relates to the use of the males, whom, as we have seen before, he imagines to be quite useless. I am also not a little pleased to find, that our experiments on the production of a queen from a common embryo agree so well.

I shall now beg leave to point out the advantage that may accrue to the public from these observations, which is that of forming artificial swarms or new colonies; or in other words, of furnishing the means to bring on a numerous increase of those useful insects: an object of some importance to this kingdom, as being the only means to prevent the annual exportation of considerable sums in the purchase of wax, a great quantity  
of

of which is lost every season for want of keeping up a sufficient stock of bees to collect it.

The practice of this new art, Mr. SCHIRACH tells us, has already extended itself through Upper Lusatia, the Palatinate, Bohemia, Bavaria, Silesia, and even in Poland. In some of those countries it has excited the attention and patronage of government; and even the Empress of Russia has thought it of such importance, that she has sent a person to Klein Bautzen, to be instructed in the general principles, and learn all the *minutiae* of this new art.

The narrow limits of this paper do not permit me here to give an account of Mr. SCHIRACH's ingenious observations. I beg leave to refer the curious reader to the work itself, which, with the reviewers, I wish was translated into the English language, as it contains many particulars highly deserving the notice of the speculative naturalist, as well as of those who cultivate bees either for profit or amusement.



IV. *An Account of a Portrait of Copernicus, presented to the Royal Society by Dr. Wolf of Dantzick: extracted from a Letter of his to Mr. Magellan, F. R. S.*

DEAR SIR,

Dantzick,  
April 7, 1776.

Read Dec. 7, 1776. **T**HE captain who will deliver this to you, will also put into your hands a copy of an original portrait of the famous COPERNICUS, which I beg you will present to the Royal Society, as a testimony of my devotion and attachment to that respectable body. The original, from which it is copied with the greatest accuracy, is in the possession of the Chamberlain HUS-

SARZEWSKI,

*Avis touchant un Portrait de Copernic, présenté à la Société Royale, par M. le Dr. Wolf de Danzic: extrait d'une Lettre du dit Dr. à M. de Magellan, Membre de la Soc. R.*

Monsieur et très cher ami,

Danzic, le 7 Avril, 1776.

**L**E capitaine qui vous délivrera celle-ci, vous apportera en même tems la copie d'un portrait du fameux COPERNIC, que je vous prie de présenter à votre illustre Société Royale, comme un temoignage de mon dévouement et respect pour cet illustre Corps. Le possesseur de l'original, dont le portrait fut copié avec la plus grand attention, est M. le Chambellan HUSSARZEWSKI. Il a



SARZEWSKI, who has already refused one hundred ducats for it, and will not part with it at any rate during his life, but intends to bequeath it me after his death; for which reason there is no probability of my ever possessing it, as he is likely to survive me many years. We have a portrait of COPERNICUS in the great church at Thorn in a kind of mausoleum, erected about thirty years after the death of that great man, by a physician of that town, who is said to have been one of his relations.

HARTKNOCH has inserted a print taken from this portrait in his *Chronicles of Prussia*. Our original has been compared with that of the mausoleum, and the features of the face are found to be perfectly similar, but there is a great difference in the dress. That at Thorn represents him kneeling before an altar, in the attitude of a priest officiating; in ours he is cloathed in fur, with his hair  
more

déjà refusé 100 ducats, et ne le cédera pas sa vie durant pour aucun prix : mais il me le veut léguer après sa morte. C'est à dire très probablement après la mienne : de sorte qu'il n'y a rien à espérer de ce côté-ci. Nous avons un portrait de COPERNIC dans la grande Eglise de Thorn, dans une espèce de mausolée, érigé une trentaine d'années après la mort de cet homme célèbre, par un médecin de la ville, qu'on dit avoir été un de ses parents.

HARTKNOCH a fait graver ce portrait, et l'a inséré dans sa *Chronique de la Prusse*. Notre original a été comparé sur le lieu avec celui du mausolée, et on a trouvé les traits du visage absolument les mêmes : mais l'habillement est très différent. Celui de Thorn le représente devant l'autel en fonction de prêtre.

Dans

more carefully dressed, and as it were in a habit of ceremony. The painter of it was certainly one of the old Italians, as will appear by comparing it with other works of those masters; for instance, it is known that the painters of those times, and even RAPHAEL, never gave to the eyes that brightness which the most indifferent artists within this century never fail to express in their portraits: not but what the serene and seemingly inanimated countenances of the former artists came nearer to nature than the sparkling eyes which are now all the fashion. This however is a proof that the portrait is at least one hundred and fifty years old; the inscription shews that the painter was an Italian; and it must further be observed, that it is now two centuries since they left off painting on wood.

The

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Dans le notre il est habillé en pèlissé, avec les cheveux de la tête plus soigneusement arrangés et coupés, comme en habit de parade. Le pinceau est sûrement Italien du vieux tems en question, comme on trouvera en regardant d'autres de ce tems et les comparant avec celui-ci. Par exemple, on sait que les peintres dans ce vieux tems, même RAPHAEL, ne savoient pas encore donner aux yeux cette vivacité, que le plus médiocre peintre depuis plus d'un siècle, ne manque pas de donner à ses peintures. Je ne dis pas que les vieux peintres n'approchent pas plus de la nature avec leurs yeux tranquilles sans feu; mais ils déplaisent à notre siècle, qui ne veut que des yeux pétillants. Au moins c'est la marque d'une ancienneté plus grande qu'un siècle et demi. L'inscription fait voir que le peintre étoit Italien. Il y a deux siècles qu'on a cessé de peindre sur du bois.

The history of this portrait is as follows. It was formerly in the collection of Saxe Gotha, where it was always considered as an original, which is even said to appear from the archives of that court, and is the more probable, as the prince-bishop of Warmia, who obtained it from the late duke of Saxe Gotha, was too good a connoisseur and too cautious to be deceived in this respect. That bishop being at Gotha in the year 1735, observed this portrait in the gallery of that palace; the proofs that were produced of its authenticity made him very desirous to acquire it. He at length obtained it by a kind of theft which it was necessary to commit on the cathedral of Warmia, in which there was a very old portrait of one of the ancestors of the dukes of Saxe Gotha, who had been bishop of that see, and whose picture was wanting in

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L'histoire de notre original est la suivante. Il a été conservé dans la collection des ducs de Saxe Getha, dans le chateau du même nom, toujours avoué comme un véritable original: on prétend même prouvé comme tel par les archives; ce qui est fort croyable, vu que le prince évêque de Warmie, qui l'a obtenu du duc défunt, étoit trop circonspect et trop bon connoisseur pour s'en laisser imposer. Enfin c'est après les paroles du prince évêque, que je fais cette assertion. Ce fut environ l'année 1735 qu' étant à Gotha, il remarqua ce portrait dans la gallerie du duc. Les preuves qu'on lui fit de son authenticité, augmentèrent son envie de le posséder. Il l'obtint enfin par un vol qu'il fallut faire à la Cathédrale de Warmie, où se trouvoit un très ancien portrait d'un des ancêtres du duc de Saxe Gotha, qui étoit jadis évêque de Warmie, et dont le portrait manquoit dans la collection des portraits de sa famille. On fit donc un échange.

in the duke's collection of the portraits of his family. An exchange was accordingly made of the two originals, and the bishop has since bequeathed that of COPERNICUS to his favourite Mr. HUSSARZEWSKI.

The copy I herewith send you is very exact in every respect, except that I have glued three wooden lists on the back of the board to prevent its warping. After my copy was taken, the proprietor of the original thought proper to have it repaired and varnished, and they are now so much alike that it is scarce possible to discern any difference. The name of my painter is LORMAN of Berlin, an artist of some reputation.

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échange des deux originaux. Le prince évêque GRABOWSKI enfin a laissé celui de COPERNIC à son favori M. HUSSARZEWSKI.

La copie est absolument la même que l'original : excepté que j'ai fait coller trois règles sur le derrière de la table pour empêcher son courbissement. Depuis que ma copie a été tirée, M. HUSSARZEWSKI, croiant bien faire, a fait renouveler son original, c'est à dire, y mettre du vernis : et actuellement il est si bien le même que la copie, qu'on peut à peine s'apercevoir de la moindre différence. Mon peintre est M. LORMAN de Berlin, assez célèbre dans son art.



V. *An Account of a Journey into Africa from the Cape of Good-Hope, and a Description of a new Species of Cuckow. By Dr. Andreas Sparrman, of the Royal Academy of Stockholm, in a Letter to Dr. John Reinhold Forster, F. R. S.*

DEAR SIR,

Gottenburg,  
Sept. 16, 1776.

Read Dec. 19, 1776. **B**EING returned to my native country after an absence of five years from it, I will endeavour to give you a short account of my expedition into Africa, which I undertook soon after parting with you at the Cape of Good-Hope. The voyage round the world, of which I shared the perils and pleasures with you, had only made me more eager to continue my rambles in quest of new discoveries. I set out therefore from the neighbourhood of the Cape-town in the beginning of August 1775, with no other company than the son of the Dutch lieutenant EMELMAN, who had formerly accompanied my learned friend Dr. THUNBERG on a similar journey, and some Hottentots who took care of my oxen.

The first misfortune I met with was the loss of the thermometer which you had left me, and which broke before I had reached the hot-baths. This was only a prelude to greater distresses. The drought was so violent this year, that the like had not been experienced in the colony within the memory of man, and it obliged the inhabitants to leave their country-seats. A great part of their cattle perished for want of grass and water, and I have frequently suffered the most raging thirst in the hot deserts which I traversed; but I was too well seasoned during the voyage to dread the hardships of a scanty subsistence, the fatigues of travelling, or the power of the climate. The most sensible misfortune which the dry season brought along with it, was the desolation of the vegetable kingdom. Far from being so fortunate as Dr. THUNBERG, who has added above a thousand species to the *Flora Capensis*, I found every thing burnt up, and only in the thickest forests met with some perennial plants which were new to me, and which, upon a revival of that gentleman's herbal, I believe are likewise unknown to him. Of these I propose to send you specimens as soon as I can find time to bring my collection into some kind of order. On the other hand, I have been fortunate with animals, and especially in the class of quadrupeds. I shall not speak of lions and other beasts

of prey, which I have frequently seen in broad day-light, and heard roaring about me at night, though they never ventured to attack our cattle. But it was chiefly among the antelopes and animals of that sort that I hunted. Mr. EMELMAN and myself, with nine hottentots, a waggon drawn by several pairs of oxen, and several hunting horses, happily traversed a desert of fifty miles, where we had greater sport than any German prince could ever boast of. On that route I penetrated farther into the country than any of my predecessors, having gone one hundred miles beyond the last Christian's or Dutchman's hut, into the district of the Yellow or (as they are vulgarly called) Chinese Hottentots.

The great buffaloes which inhabit the wilds of Africa, do not appear to me to differ in any respect from the North American *Bison*, although I have seen great numbers of them. I have likewise found a species of pole-cat on that continent which LINNÆUS calls *Viverra Zibethicus*, contrary to M. DE BUFFON'S opinion, who seems to confine this animal and its species to America. By the sea-side I was fortunate enough to catch a *Manatee* alive, notwithstanding the difficulty which must attend the capture of such an unweildy animal. There I likewise saw some islands, on which I was told an English ship had been lost. These I suspected at first to be the *Doddingtons*; but afterwards

afterwards had reason to doubt it, those islands being supposed to lie in a more southerly latitude.

I have had opportunities of making many curious and valuable Observations relative to the different tribes of Hottentots, their oeconomy, hunting-matches, and other customs; an account of which, together with some remarks on the natural history of the elephant, the rhinoceros, and other animals, I intend to prepare for the press. I am possessed of an accurate map of that part of Africa which I have visited, containing all the hills, together with the smallest rivulets, as far as the Bay de la Goa, which, I think, will be a great addition to the work. I only regret that I was not able to draw the objects of natural history, and have an hundred times wished that your son had been with me for this purpose.

As I had been upwards of nine months on this journey, at my return to the Cape I found that my acquaintance had given up all hopes of seeing me again, having had no tidings of me for so long a space of time. Notwithstanding the many dangers to which I had been exposed on this expedition, I assure you I was greatly tempted to stay another year, in hopes of being more successful in botanical discoveries. However, the prospect of securing the spoils which I had collected, prevailed on me to relinquish that scheme. Indeed I little thought at that time that the greatest



danger awaited my collection in Sweden. A few days ago a great part of it has been damaged here by fire, which has been particularly fatal to my stuffed birds, having destroyed some which were not yet described.

As I am well acquainted with the pleasure which every new discovery in the history of nature gives you, I take this early opportunity of expressing the readiness with which I wish to contribute to your satisfaction, and have subjoined to this letter an account of a curious bird, a species of Cuckow, which I have saved out of the fire. I only beg that you will consider it as an earnest of more important communications, as soon as the hurry of my affairs will permit me to bring my papers into order. In the meantime if you should think that account, and the annexed drawing, worthy the attention of the Royal Society, I should be greatly flattered if you would do me the honour to lay it before that learned Body.

With the greatest esteem I remain, &c.

## THE HISTORY OF THE HONEY-GUIDE, OR CUCULUS INDICATOR.

THIS curious species of Cuckow is found at a considerable distance from the Cape of Good-Hope, in the interior parts of Africa, being entirely unknown at that settlement. The first place where I heard of it was in a wood, called the *Groot Vaader's Bosch*, the Grand Father's Wood, situated in a desert near the river which the Hottentots call *T'kaut'kai*. The Dutch settlers thereabouts have given this bird the name of *Honig-wyzer*, or Honey-guide, from its quality of discovering wild-honey to travellers. Its colour has nothing striking or beautiful, as will appear from the description and drawing annexed; and its size is considerably smaller than that of our Cuckow in Europe: but in return, the instinct which prompts it to seek its food in a singular manner, is truly admirable. Not only the Dutch and Hottentots, but likewise a species of quadruped, which the Dutch name a *Ratel*<sup>(a)</sup>, are frequently conducted to wild bee-hives by this bird, which as it were pilots them to the very spot. The honey being its favourite food, its own interest prompts it to be instrumental in robbing the hive, as

(a) Probably a new species of badger.

some scraps are commonly left for its support. The morning and evening are its times of feeding, and it is then heard calling in a shrill tone *cherr, cherr*, which the honey-hunters carefully attend to as the summons to the chase. From time to time they answer with a soft whistle, which the bird hearing, always continues its note. As soon as they are in sight of each other, the bird gradually flutters towards the place where the hive is situated, continually repeating its former call of *cherr, cherr*: nay, if it should happen to have gained a considerable way before the men (who may easily be hindered in the pursuit by bushes, rivers, and the like) it returns to them again, and redoubles its note, as if to reproach them with their inactivity. At last the bird is observed to hover for a few moments over a certain spot, and then silently retiring to a neighbouring bush or other resting-place, the hunters are sure of finding the bees nest in that identical spot, whether it be in a tree, or in the crevice of a rock, or (as is most commonly the case) in the earth. Whilst the hunters are busy in taking the honey, the bird is seen looking on attentively to what is going forward, and waiting for its share of the spoil. The bee-hunters never fail to leave a small portion for their conductor, but commonly take care not to leave so much as would satisfy its hunger. The bird's appetite being only whetted by this parsimony,

it is obliged to commit a second treason, by discovering another bees-nest, in hopes of a better salary. It is further observed, that the nearer the bird approaches the hidden hive, the more frequently it repeats its call, and seems more impatient.

I have had frequent opportunities of seeing this bird, and have been witnesses of the destruction of several republicks of bees, by means of its treachery. I had however but two opportunities of shooting it, which I did to the great indignation of my Hottentots. From those specimens (both of which are supposed to be females) I have made the subsequent description. The inhabitants in general accuse the same bird of sometimes conducting its followers where wild beasts and venomous serpents have their places of abode: this however I never had an opportunity of ascertaining myself; but am apt to believe such cases to be accidental, when dangerous animals happen to be in the neighbourhood of a bees-nest.

Whilst I staid in the interior parts of Africa, a nest was shewn to me, which some peasants assured me was the nest of a Honey-guide. It was woven of slender filaments or fibres of bark, in the form of a bottle. The neck and opening hung downwards, and a string in an arched shape

shape was suspended across the opening, fastened by the two ends, perhaps for the bird to perch upon.

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DESCRIPTIO CUCULI INDICATORIS.

*ROSTRUM* crassiusculum, versus basin fuscum, apicē luteum.

*Angulus oris* usque infra oculos extensus.

*Nares* postremæ ad basin rostri, supremæ vicinæ ut carinulâ dorsali saltem separarentur, oblongæ, margine prominulo.

*Pili* aliquot ad basin rostri, præcipuè in mandibulâ inferiore.

*Lingua* plana, subsagittata.

*Oculorum* irides ferrugineo-griseæ.

*Palpebræ* nudæ, nigræ.

*Pedes* nigri, scanforii. *Tibiæ* breves; *Ungues* tenues, nigri.

*Pileus* læte griseus e pennis brevibus latiusculis.

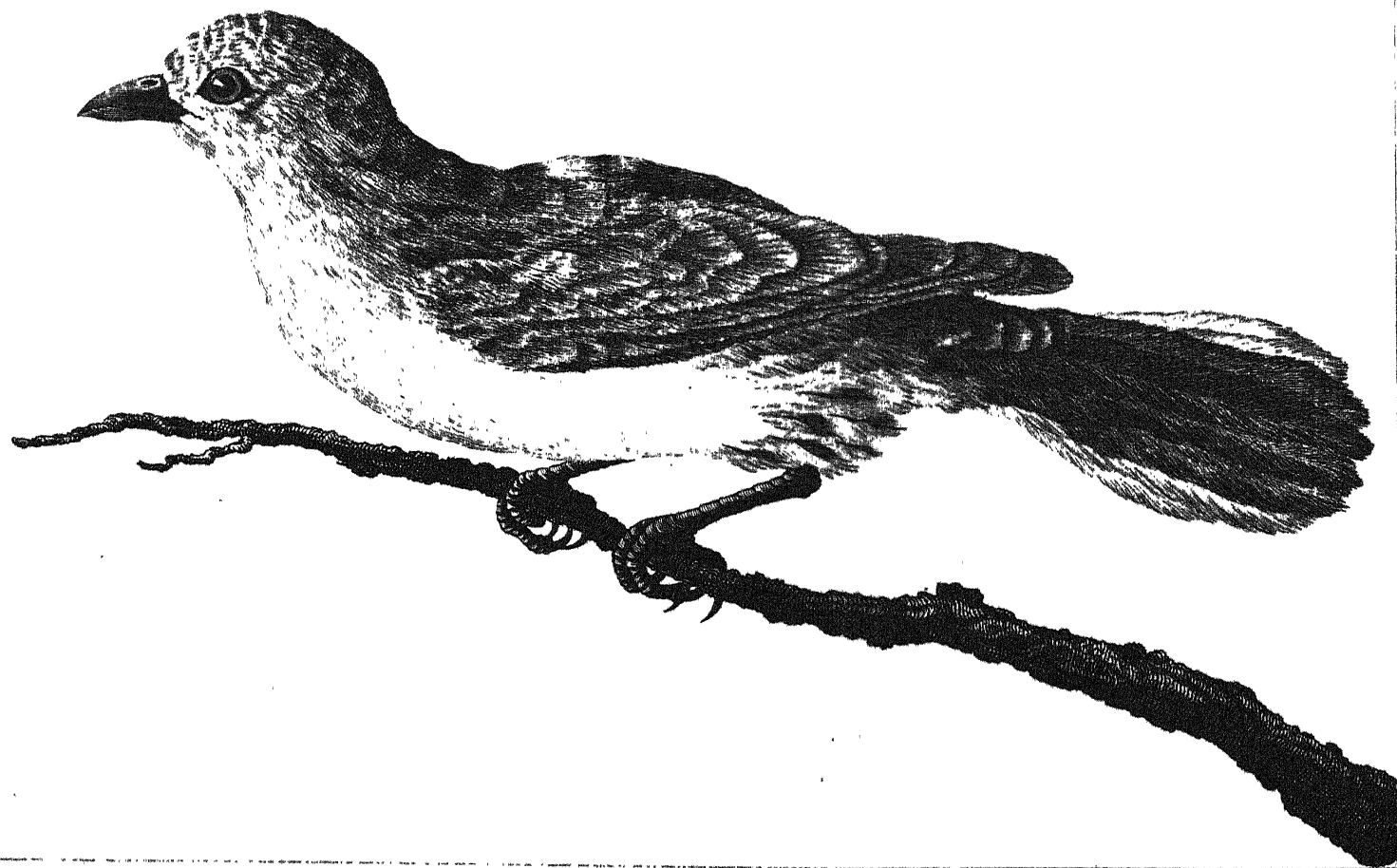
*Gula, Jugulum, Pectus*, sordidè alba, cum aliquo virore vix notabili in pectore.

*Dorsum* et *Uropygium* ferrugineo-grisea.

*Abdomen, Crissumque* alba.

*Femora* tecta pennis albis, macula longitudinali nigra notatis.





CUCULUS INDICATOR.

*The Honey Guide.*





*Alarum rectrices* superiores omnes griseo-fuscae, exceptis summis aliquot quae flavis apicibus formant *maculam flavam* in humeris, exiguam, et a plumis scapularibus saepe tectam.

*Rectrices infra alam* alidae, harum supremæ ex albedo nigroque maculatæ.

*Remiges omnes* supra fusci, primarii octo, secundarii sex, subtus cinereo-fusci.

*Alulae* griseo-fuscae.

*Cauda* cuneiformis, rectricibus duodecim: harum duæ intermediæ longiores angustiores, supra et infra æruginoso-fuscae; proximæ duæ fuliginosæ, margine inferiore albicantes; duæ utrinque his proximæ, albæ, apice fuscae, et exterius ad basin macula nigra notatæ; extrema utrinque reliquis brevior, alba, apice fusca, macula nigra vix ulla ad basin.

*Alae* complicatæ caudæ partem quartam attingunt.

*Longitudo* ab apice rostri ad extremum caudæ circiter septem uncias pedis Anglicani explet.

*Rostrum* a basi superiore ad apicem semunciale.

VI. *An Account of some new Electrical Experiments.* By  
 Mr. Tiberius Cavallo: *communicated by Mr. Henley,*  
 F. R. S.

DESCRIPTION AND USE OF THE ATMOSPHERICAL  
 ELECTROMETER.

Read Dec. 19, 1776. **F**IG. I. represents a very simple instrument, which I have contrived for making observations on the electricity of the atmosphere, and which on several accounts seems to be the most useful instrument hitherto invented for that purpose. AB is a common jointed fishing-rod, without the last or smallest joint. From the extremity of this rod proceeds a slender glass tube c, covered with sealing-wax, and having a cork D at its end, from which a pith-ball electrometer is suspended. HGI is a piece of twine fastened to the other extremity of the rod, and supported at G by a small string FG. At the end I of the twine a pin is fastened, which, when pushed into the cork D, renders the electrometer E uninfused.

When

When I intend to observe the electricity of the atmosphere with this instrument, I thrust the pin *i* into the cork *D*, and holding the rod by its lower end *A*, project it out of a window in the upper part of the house, into the air, raising the end of the rod with the electrometer so as to make an angle of about  $50^{\circ}$  or  $60^{\circ}$  with the horizon. In this situation I keep the instrument for a few seconds, and then pulling the twine at *H*, I disengage the pin from the cork *D*, which operation causes the string to drop in the dotted situation *LK*, and leaves the electrometer insulated, and electrified with an electricity contrary to that of the atmosphere. This done, I withdraw the instrument, and examine the quality of the electricity without any obstruction either from wind or darkness.

With this instrument I have made observations on the electricity of the atmosphere several times in a day, and have kept a journal of those experiments from the 27th of September last to this day.

The following is the most remarkable part of the above-mentioned journal, in which I have noted the electricity of the electrometer, that is the contrary of that in the atmosphere.

The stroke ——— signifies *as above*.

Time of Observation.	Clouds.	Fog.	Wind.	Opening of the Electrometer in inches.	Electricity.
Oct. 19th, 10½ o'clock.	Cloudy.	{ Very little at a distance.	{ Very strong.	$\frac{1}{10}$	Negative.
11	—	—	—	—	—
2	Heavy clouds.	—	Violent.	$\frac{3}{4}$	Positive.
2½	Less cloudy.	—	Little.	1	—
3	Few at a distance.	—	—	$\frac{1}{2}$	Negative.
8	o	o	—	—	—
Oct. 31st, 11 post mer.	—	—	o	$\frac{1}{2}$	—
Nov. 6th, 11 post mer.	—	Very thick.	—	1	—

From the above-mentioned journal I have deduced the following general observations.

1st, That there is in the atmosphere at all times a quantity of electricity; for whenever I use the above described atmospherical electrometer it always acquires some electricity.

2dly, That the electricity of the atmosphere or fogs is always of the same kind, namely positive; for the electrometer is always negative, except when it is evidently influenced by heavy clouds near the zenith.

3dly, That the strongest electricity is observable in thick fogs, and the weakest when the weather is cloudy and there is a strong appearance of rain; but it does not seem to be less at night than in the day-time.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ELECTROMETER FOR  
THE RAIN.

THE rain-electrometer is, in its principle, nothing more than an insulated instrument to catch the rain, and by a pith-ball electrometer to show the quantity and quality of its electricity.

Fig. 2. represents an instrument of this kind, which I have frequently used, and after several observations have found to answer very well. ABCI is a strong glass tube about two feet and a half long, having a tin funnel DE cemented to its extremity, which funnel defends part of the tube from the rain. The outside surface of the tube from A to B is covered with sealing-wax, as also that part of it which is covered by the funnel. FD is a piece of cane, round which several brass wires are twisted in different directions, so as to catch the rain easily, and at the same time to make no resistance to the wind. This piece of cane is fixed into the tube, and a slender wire proceeding from the former goes through the bore of the tube, and communicates with the strong wire AG, which is thrust into a piece of cork fastened to the end A of the tube. The end G of the wire AG is formed into a ring, from

which I suspend a more or less sensible pith-ball electrometer as occasion requires.

This instrument is fastened to the side of the window-frame, where it is supported by strong brass hooks at *cb*. The part *H* stands out of the window, with the end *F* a little elevated above the horizon. The remaining part of the instrument passes, through a hole in a glass of the sash, into the room, and no more of it touches the side of the window than the part *bc*.

When it rains, especially in flying showers, this instrument, standing in the situation above described, is frequently electrified; and by the diverging of the electrometer the quantity and quality of the electricity of the rain may be observed, without any danger of mistake. With this instrument I have observed that the rain is generally electrified negatively, and sometimes so strongly, that I have been able to charge a small coated phial at the wire *AG*.

This rain-electrometer should be fixed in such a manner that it may be easily taken from and replaced at the window as occasion may require; for it will be necessary to clean it very often, particularly when a shower of rain is approaching.

EXPERIMENTS MADE WITH A GLASS TUBE HERMETICALLY SEALED, AND HAVING SOME QUICKSILVER INCLOSED IN ITS CAVITY.

IN making some experiments rather foreign to electricity, it occurred to me, that when I agitated some quicksilver in a glass tube hermetically sealed, and in which the air was very much rarefied, it contracted a very sensible quantity of electricity; which however was not constant, nor, as I first thought, in proportion to the agitation of the quicksilver. Being desirous of ascertaining the properties of this tube, I constructed several of them, and, as accurately as I could, observed their properties; but as they all agreed with regard to the chief points, I shall only describe one, which is the best I have yet made.

This tube is two feet and seven inches long, and about four tenths of an inch in diameter: the quicksilver in it may be about three quarters of an ounce, and to exhaust it of air, I closed it whilst the quicksilver was boiling in its opposite end.

Before I use this instrument I warm it a little and clean it; then holding it nearly horizontally, I let the quicksilver in it run from one end of the tube to the other;

other, by gently and alternately elevating and depressing its extremities. This operation immediately renders the outside of the tube electrical, but with the following remarkable property, *viz.* that part or end of the tube where the quicksilver actually stands is positive, and the remaining part negative. If, by elevating this positive end of the tube a little, I let the quicksilver run to the opposite end which was negative, then the former instantly becomes negative and the latter positive. The positive end is always more strongly electrical than the negative. If when one end of the tube (which we call A) is positive, that is, if, when the quicksilver is in it, I do not take off the electricity; then on elevating it so as to let the quicksilver run to the opposite end B, the end A becomes negatively electrified in a very small degree: if I make it positive a second time, and do not take off that positive electricity; then, on elevating it again, it appears to be positive in a small degree: but if whilst it is positive I take off that positive electricity, then on being elevated it appears strongly negative.

These appearances I would explain in the following manner: the quicksilver agitated within the cavity of the tube acts like a rubber, that is, excites the inside surface of the tube positively, and becomes itself negative. Now when the quicksilver, negatively electrified, is on one



end of the tube, the outside of the glass, by the known property of charged electrics, must be positive. The remaining part of the tube being positive on its inner surface, must be negative on the outside. But as there is a *vacuum* within the tube, it may be asked, why is not the equilibrium between the negative electricity of the quicksilver and the positive electricity of the glass instantly balanced?

When about two inches of each extremity of this tube are coated with tin-foil, that coating assists to make the electricities more conspicuous.

With regard to the construction of such tubes (which I have made of several lengths from nine inches to two feet seven inches) I find that some will act very well, while others will hardly acquire any electricity at all, even when they are made very hot. I am not as yet thoroughly satisfied with respect to the cause of this difference, but suspect that the thickness of the glass is more concerned in it than any thing else; for I find that a tube whose glass is about one twentieth of an inch thick, answers better than either a thicker or a thinner one.

November 13, 1776.



VII. *A Third Essay on Sea-anemonies.**By the Abbé Dicquemare.*

## ON THE GENERATION OF THE FOURTH SPECIES.

Read Jan. 9,  
1777.

**H**AVING in my second essay on sea-anemonies, communicated my discoveries on the manner in which the fourth species is multiplied, and offered some conjectures on the internal organization of the small shreds which become anemonies, I added a caution, not to admit of those conjectures without circumspection. What passed under my own eyes convinced

*Troisième Mémoire pour servir à l'Histoire des Anémones de Mer.**Par M. l'Abbé Dicquemare.*

Sur la Génération de la Quatrième Espèce.

Havre de Grace, Mars 7, 1776.

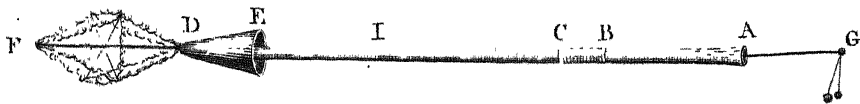
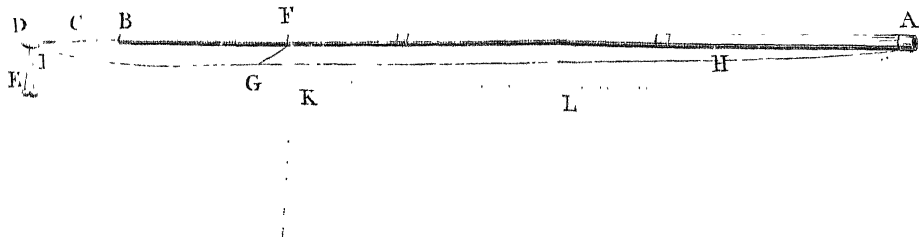
**A**Près avoir exposé dans un second mémoire pour servir à l'histoire des Anémones de mer, mes découvertes sur la manière dont celles de la quatrième espèce se multiplient; après avoir ouvert quelques conjectures sur l'organisation intérieure des petits lambeaux qui deviennent anémones, je ne dissimulai pas qu'on ne devoit point y restreindre ses idées. Ce qui se passoit sous mes yeux

me





Fig. 1



*A. Curv. d. l. l. n.*

Tab. III. p. 55.

*Fig. 1.*

*Fig. 2.*

*Fig. 3.*

*Fig. 4.*

*Fig. 5.*

*Fig. 6.*

*Fig. 7.*



convinced me more and more (and I gave some hints to that purpose) that the smallest particle of a living animal, has an organization which far exceeds every idea we can conceive of it; and which, from the extreme minuteness of those particles, baffles our closest inspection: so that instead of being surprized at the singular effects of reproduction, they are rather what we ought to expect, and be prepared to observe as they arise. It is with this view that I have continued my experiments and observations: they have confirmed the discoveries I had made, and afforded me an opportunity to justify some eminent men, whose assertions concerning the multiplication of the fresh-water polypi by sections, have met with the most unmerited contradictions.

Among all the objects which nature offers to the contemplative mind, there is none so striking and important as that of the generation of beings, and especially of animated

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me persuadoit de plus en plus, et j'en expliquai, que les moindres parties d'un être vivant ont une organisation qui surpasse infiniment l'idée que nous pouvons nous en faire, que l'énorme petitesse de ces parties dérobe aux regards les plus avides; et que loin de se surprendre des effets singuliers de reproduction, on devrait pour ainsi dire les attendre, et se mettre à portée de les saisir. C'est dans cette vue que j'ai continué mes observations et mes expériences: elles ont confirmé les découvertes que j'avois faites, et me procurent la satisfaction de justifier les hommes illustres, qui en nous faisant connoître la multiplication des polypes d'eau douce par la section, ont éprouvé les contradictions les moins méritées.

De tous les objets que la nature offre à l'esprit méditatif, il n'en est point de plus grand, de plus respectable, que celui de la génération des êtres, et surtout des

mated beings. This grand mystery has always attracted the attention of the greatest philosophers; but their want of success in their researches may be easily inferred from the deficiency of proper means of observation: and it seems an advantage reserved for our age, to introduce a new set of beings, which bids fair to throw great light upon our enquiries on that subject.

Had I only fresh proofs to add to those already given, and no new discoveries to communicate, I should certainly leave nature to establish our opinion of her operations: but having been fortunate enough to gather some scattered fruits in this wide field, which had escaped the observation of others merely because they were engaged in more plentiful harvests, I have been struck with the increasing singularity, number, and importance of the objects, which have appeared to me to dissipate all doubt.

I shall

êtres vivans : c'est aussi vers cette merveille que les philosophes les plus distingués ont dirigé leurs regards ; mais leur manque de succès résulte naturellement des faibles moyens qu'ils avoient pour faire des observations ; et c'est un avantage qui paroît avoir été réservé à notre siècle, de faire paroître sur la scène des êtres jusqu'ici ignorés, qui promettent de nous fournir des nouvelles lumières sur ce sujet.

Si je n'avois à présenter ici que les mêmes découvertes, quoique ce fût multiplier les preuves, je laisserois à la nature le soin de fixer l'opinion ; mais dans ce champ fertile j'ai été assez heureux pour recueillir quelques fruits à l'écart, et qui n'avoient échappé aux regards des autres que parcequ'ils étoient occupés de récoltes plus abondantes : j'ai vu la singularité s'augmenter, et le nombre comme l'étendue des objets m'a paru propre à dissiper les doutes. Je ne rappellerai pas ici



I shall not here repeat what I have already said concerning the reproduction of the superior part of the fourth species, which is often as thick as one's arm; new experiments have confirmed it, and have shewn the possibility of the reproduction of fresh-water polypi, without having recourse to a multitude of imperceptible animals: but the better to explain what I have since discovered concerning the generation of this species of anemonies, I must beg leave briefly to recapitulate what I have already published on that subject. These anemonies, having their bases unequally extended upon, and firmly adhering at their extremities to a hard substance, contract; and thus tear off and leave on that hard substance, one or more small shreds of their bases, covered with pieces of the coat of the old animals; and these shreds soon after become small anemonies, which also is the case in artificial sections. Of this singular operation I have had opportunities

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ce que j'ai dit de la reproduction de la partie supérieure des anémones de la quatrième espèce, souvent grosse comme le bras; de nouvelles expériences l'ont encore confirmée, et ont fait voir la possibilité de celle des polypes d'eau douce, sans avoir besoin de recourir à une multitude d'animaux imperceptibles: mais qu'il me soit permis de retracer ici en peu de mots ce que j'ai déjà publié sur la génération de cette espèce, autrement il seroit difficile de saisir ce que j'ai aperçu depuis. Ces anémones, ayant la base inégalement étendue et fortement attachée par quelques points de ses extrémités sur un corps dur, se retirent sur elles mêmes, et laissent ainsi en se déchirant une ou plusieurs portions très petites de leur base, recouvertes d'une parcelle de leur robe, qui deviennent en peu de temps des petites anémones, ce qui a lieu aussi par des sections violentes. En observant de nouveau ces

nities of seeing repeated instances, having been very assiduous and constant in my observations.

On the 26th of October 1775, an anemony, on which I had tried an experiment foreign to the present purpose, contracted, and left on the side of the vase a small shred, which at the very first I suspected to be intended for a young anemony: not that it was either fleshy, or that it seemed to contain a bulb; but because the anemony had for several days before stretched itself considerably, and in a particular manner, from that point of the base. Certain internal fibres or *radii* appeared; which in the old anemony had their direction from the circumference to the centre: and as the shred was an irregular segment of the area of the circle formed by the base of the old anemony, it is evident that these fibres or *radii*, being somewhat distant from each other at the arch of the segment,

did

animaux, et après avoir attendu longtemps, j'ai eu la satisfaction de voir se répéter cette opération singulière, et je l'ai suivie d'aussi près qu'il m'a été possible.

Le 26 Octobre, 1775, une anémone sur laquelle j'avois tenté une expérience qui n'a rien de commun avec notre objet présent, laissa contre les parois du vase, en se retirant, un petit lambeau que je soupçonnai dès le commencement être destiné à devenir une petite anémone; non qu'il fut épais ou qu'il me parut contenir quelque bulbe, mais parce que l'anémone s'étoit fort allongée par ce point de sa base, depuis plusieurs jours, d'une manière toute particulière. On appercevoit dans l'intérieur certains fibres ou rayons qui dans l'anémone avoient tendu de la circonférence au centre, et comme ce lambeau étoit un segment irrégulier de l'aire du cercle qui forme la base d'une grande anémone, on comprend que ces fibres ou rayons, un peu distans l'un de l'autre à l'arc de ce segment, ne convergoient

pas

did not converge sufficiently to form a centre at the chord; and that the point of union of these *radii* was the centre of a circle equal to that formed by the base of the old anemony (see TAB. III. fig. 1. its natural size, and fig. 2. magnified). During the first days this little fragment acquired plumpness, bent itself gradually into a round figure, and seemed to make some efforts towards forming itself into the shape in which it appeared on the 25th; the fibres becoming gradually more convergent, the chord of the arch shorter, and the arch a segment of a smaller circle. At length the *radii* united in a centre (see fig. 3. magnified) and its profile appeared a segment of a sphere (see fig. 4.)

On the 30th of October I perceived in this fragment considerable contractions and dilatations in the direction of its thickness; but could see no mouth nor limbs. On the 1st of

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pas assez pour former un centre à la corde; et que le point de réunion de ces rayons étoit le centre d'un cercle égal à celui que formoit la base de l'anémone : voyez TAB. III. fig. 1. et 2. dans l'une il est de grandeur naturelle, et dans l'autre vu à la loupe. Pendant les premiers jours cette petite portion prenoit de l'épaisseur, se recourboit et s'arrondissoit peu à peu; elle tendoit de toute ses forces à prendre la forme ou elle parvint le 25, c'est à dire que petit à petit, les fibres étant devenues plus convergens, la corde de l'arc du cercle plus courte, l'arc une portion d'un plus petit cercle, il s'étoit formé un centre de réunion de ces rayons, qui occupoit le côté de ce petit corps animé, comme le représente la figure 3. qui est vue à la loupe; quant au profil, il est représenté par un segment de sphere, ou par la figure 4.

Le 30 Octobre j'aperçus des contractions et des dilatations très sensibles dans l'épaisseur, mais point de bouche ni de membres. Le 1 Novembre il a changé de

of November it moved from its place. On the 7th I discovered, by means of a strong lens, an orifice and some appearance of limbs. On the 16th I saw them very distinctly. On the 17th it changed its place again. At the beginning of January 1776, the folds of the body were formed, and then it could not but be considered as a young anemony, similar in every respect to the old one by which it had been produced, except in the number of limbs, which however, although the animal be still very small, are now increasing. The semi-transparency, which often prevents accurate observation, allowed me to view the gradation through which the small fibres became convergent: I could also see the gradual contraction of the angles of the segment, and that not a single particle of the fragment perished; all seemed to be re-incorporated into the mass. The word *all* must not, however, be taken in a strict sense; for I must confess that I perceived some yellowish filmy matter round this little mass,

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place. Le 7, à l'aide d'une forte loupe, j'ai aperçu un orifice, et des apparences de membres. Le 16 je les ai vus très distinctement. Le 17 il a de nouveau changé de lieu. Au commencement de Janvier 1776, le pli du corps s'est formé; c'étoit donc alors une petite anémone qui, à l'exception du nombre des membres, ressembloit parfaitement à celle dont elle étoit provenüe; les membres augmentent, et cependant cette anémone est fort petite. La demi-transparence, qui gêne quelquefois dans les observations, m'a permis de distinguer le progrès par lequel les petites fibres sont devenües convergentes: J'ai vu aussi les angles de segment se raccourcir, et rien ne m'a paru périr: tout s'est refoulé dans la masse. Ce mot *tout* ne doit cependant pas être pris à la lettre: j'ai aperçu quelques pellicules quelques substances

mass, which separated from it; but its quantity was so small, that I could not thence infer the loss of any particle of the shred, and rather imagined that this matter was merely the effect of some secretions or extravasated humour.

What still leaves me a doubt concerning the germ is, that this effect has been more considerable in some of my experiments than in others. Had the fragment of the anemony contained a germ, it might be concluded that the membrane which covered it should have perished as soon as the animal was formed; this however was not sufficiently evident in several cases, and especially in those where the fragment had been naturally torn off. At first the shred was thin, and thinner still before it was separated from the old anemony; and no bulb could ever be perceived either then or in the sequel. I was then led to  
imagine,

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substances un peu jaunâtres, autour de la petite masse, qui en ont été séparées; mais elles étoient en si petite quantité, que je n'ai pu en conclure qu'il eut péri quelque chose du lambeau, cette substance étoit peut-être due à des sécrétions ou à quelque humeur extravasée.

Ce qui me laisse encore un doute réel, c'est que cet effet a été plus sensible dans quelques unes de mes expériences. Si cette portion d'anémone eût contenu un germe, n'est-on pas porté à penser que les membranes qui l'enveloppent auroient péri lors de son développement. C'est ce qu'on ne remarque pas d'une manière assez sensible dans plusieurs, et surtout dans ceux qui se déchirent naturellement. D'abord le petit lambeau étoit mince et, avant qu'il fût séparé de l'anémone, je l'ai observé pendant plusieurs jours; il étoit plus mince encore: je n'y voyois nulle  
apparence

imagine, especially on account of the union of the fibres in a common centre, that a simple shred produced an anemone. But from what cause does this little fragment contract into a circle, and increase its thickness? how shall we account for its visible tendency towards forming a new animal? is it a necessary instinct? can it be admitted that in these animals the vital principle is peculiar to every particle? and in what manner is it, or is it not, subordinate to the general organization of the individual, according to circumstances which it seems in our power to modify? How many specious reasonings might be made on this subject, did we prefer the admiration of the public to real truth! The only inference that I think can as yet be derived from these and the following observations is, that there certainly are animated beings which multiply, as it were, by slips; but whether the concurrence

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apparence de bulbe, et je n'y en ai point vu depuis : j'ai donc été tenté de croire, surtout à cause de la réunion du bout des fibres à un centre commun, que c'étoit un simple lambeau qui devenoit anémone. Mais qui est ce qui fait, qu'étant détachée, cette petite portion se recourbe, et prend de l'épaisseur? par quelle cause tend-elle visiblement à former un animal? sent-elle alors la nécessité de le devenir? le principe de la vie feroit-il, dans ces animaux, particulier à chacune de leurs parties; et comment est il, ou n'est il pas, selon les circonstances que nous pouvons faire naître, subordonné à l'organisation générale de l'individu? Oh, si on étoit tenté de préférer l'admiration du public à la bonne foi, que de choses à dire! Tout ce qui me semble qu'on peut conclure de ces observations, et plus encore de celles qui vont suivre, c'est qu'il est vraiment des êtres animés qui se multiplient comme de bouture; mais j'attends être instruit par des nouvelles

currence of two sexes may or may not be dispensed with, is a fact I expect to learn from future experiments. I can at present only suspect its being unnecessary, since the anemonies I had hitherto operated upon were all produced at sea. The manner in which they multiply seems strongly to favour that supposition: such ideas begin already to become familiar to us, they appear less singular; and yet how different are they from those we used to entertain of the animal creation!

Let us now proceed from the operations of mere nature, to such as are in some measure the effect of art. On the 12th. of December 1773, I severed with the point of a knife ten small pieces from the bases of several anemonies, at the places where they seemed the most distended, and most adherent to large oyster-shells, from which they dropped after the operation. I put these  
pieces

nouvelles expériences, sur l'inutilité du concours des deux sexes: je ne puis que la soupçonner, parceque les anémones que j'ai opéré jusqu'ici étoient nées en mer. La manière dont ces animaux se multiplient semble étayer fortement ce soupçon. Déjà nous nous accoutumons à toutes ces idées nouvelles; elles nous frappent moins: cependant combien sont elles éloignées de celles que nous avons de l'animal!

Passons maintenant des opérations propres de la nature, à celles où l'art entre pour quelque chose. Le 12 Décembre 1775, je coupai, avec le bout d'un bistouri, dix petites portions des bords de la base de plusieurs anémones, aux endroits où ces bases étoient plus étendues, et plus adhérentes à des écailles de grosses huîtres, dont elles se détachèrent en les coupant. Je mis ces particules

pieces into different vases. The next day two of them stuck to the bottom; on the 14th two more adhered; on the 22d, six of them; on the 24th, nine; and on the 27th, all were affixed. Each of them went through the same progress as the pieces which had been torn off naturally; and before the beginning of March they were all furnished with limbs &c. Although I be conscious of having been very accurate and attentive in my observations, still I have not yet been fortunate enough to see all that I could wish. I shall however repeat my attempts, and I have great expectations from the new experiments I meditate. The present have pointed out some differences which lead to several reflections. Those shreds which had been cut of a larger size, produced (besides the films they may have lost) larger anemonies. Whether this multiplication be the effect of a bulb, of a germ,

OR

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dans autant de vases: le lendemain deux étoient attachées au fond; le 14 deux autres étoient de même attachées; le 22 six, le 24 neuf, et le 27 elles l'étoient toutes. Chacune d'elles m'ayant présenté successivement les mêmes progrès qu'avoient fait les portions détachées naturellement, il seroit inutile de les décrire de nouveau: avant le premier Mars elles avoient toutes des membres, &c. Quoique j'aie observé avec le plus grand soin ce qui s'est passé, je n'ai pas encore été assez heureux pour voir tout ce que je desirois; mais j'y reviendrai et j'espère beaucoup des nouvelles tentatives que je médite. Celles-ci m'ont offert des différences qui donnent lieu à quelques réflexions. Ceux de ces petits morceaux d'anémones que j'ai coupés plus grands, ont produit (indépendamment de ce qui a pu s'en détacher) des anémones plus grandes. Si c'est en vertu d'une bulbe, d'un germe:



or of an egg, it still appears that its teguments, and all that is contiguous to those teguments, should not be a constituent part of the animal, and that only a larger germ can produce a larger animal.

Is it then in our option to produce anemonies not only when we please, but also of what size we please<sup>(a)</sup>? Or does the multiplying anemony follow in this its own inclination? All this, added to the junction of the fibres, seems very opposite to the opinion of the germs or eggs; but on the other hand there are observations which fa-

(a) Without invalidating what is here said, some experiments have induced me to think that this assertion should be admitted with some limitations; that if the shreds be very large, they will perish; that in general only small ones should be cut, without either fretting or tearing them; and that the vases should always be kept very clean, and the water as clear and as fresh as possible.

your

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germe, ou d'un oeuf quelconque, que cette multiplication se fait, il semble que tout ce qui y seroit joint comme envelope, et plus encore comme contigu aux envelopes, devroit ne pas faire partie du petit animal, et qu'il n'y auroit qu'un germe plus gros, qui donnât une anémone plus grosse.

Sommes nous donc les maitres, non seulement de faire naître les anémones quand nous voulons, mais même de leur donner plus ou moins de grosseur (a)? L'anémone qui multiplie en dispose-t-elle aussi à son gré? Tout cela joint à la réunion des fibres, semble bien opposé aux germes et aux œufs; mais aussi d'autres observations leur sont favorables. Il m'a semblé qu'il se séparoit un peu plus de

(a) Sans affoiblir ce que j'expose, quelques expériences me font penser que ceci a des bornes assez étroites; que des morceaux trop grands périssent, et qu'en général il n'en faut couper que de petits, sans les tirer; que les vases doivent être nets, et l'eau claire et fraîche.

your it. It appeared to me, that more of the membranaceous particles came off from the shreds which had been clipped of a larger size, than from those which had been naturally torn from the anemony; but as I have not had occasion to observe many of the latter, this difference may be owing merely to the different sizes of the shreds.

Another circumstance I observed in the pieces that were naturally torn off is, that there are some which produce several anemonies, which sometimes remain united, and at other times separate. I have myself frequently seen this operation. One of the shreds I had clipped was of an irregular shape, nearly as in fig. 5. A little contraction was soon formed between the two extremities, both of which became round, swelled and assumed the appearance of two drops of tallow; the contraction became  
like

ces especes de pellicules des morceaux coupés un peu gros, que de ceux arrachés naturellement par l'anémone même; mais comme je n'ai eu occasion d'observer qu'un petit nombre de ceux-ci, il pourroit arriver que cette différence ne seroit due qu'au plus ou moins d'étendue du lambeau.

Une autre remarque que j'avois déjà faite dans les morceaux séparés naturellement est, qu'il s'en trouve quelques uns d'où naissent plusieurs anémones, entre les quelles il y en a qui restent unies, tandis que d'autres se séparent. Cette opération s'est répétée sous mes yeux. Un lambeau que j'avois coupé avoit à peu près la forme que représente la figure 5. Il se forma un petit étranglement entre l'un et l'autre de ses bouts; chaque bout prit une figure ronde, et leur surface supérieure s'élevoit en goutte de suif: l'étranglement devint comme un  
filet,

like a thread (fig. 6.). On the 24th of January, the largest piece (for they were of very unequal sizes) crept up a little way on the side of the vase; and on the 28th, the thread broke, when the two fragments became two distinct anemonies. Doth this imply that there were two germs in the shred? Or may one single shred, without any bulb, germ, or egg whatever, produce one or more anemonies either connected or separate? These are questions I am not yet able to solve, and I wish I were the only one thus uninformed. But to return; the following facts, of which I have frequently been eye-witness, must now be admitted. 1st, That the anemonies of this species are multiplied by shreds, both naturally and artificially. 2dly, That these shreds produce sometimes only one, and at other times several anemonies. 3dly, That among these young anemonies formed by one shred, several remain

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filet, figure 6. Le 24. Janvier, la plus grosse partie (car elles étoient fort inégales) monta un peu aux parois du vase; le 28 le filet s'est rompu, et ces deux parties sont devenues deux petites anémones. Y auroit il donc eu deux germes dans ce morceau? ou bien peut-il d'un simple lambeau sans bulbe, sans germe, sans œuf quelconque, naître une ou plusieurs anémones, unies ou séparées? C'est ce que je ne sçais pas encore, et je voudrois être le seul qui l'ignorât. Revenons donc à cette source féconde. D'abord on doit regarder comme des faits certains, dont j'ai été témoin plusieurs fois, 1°, que les anémones de cette espèce se multiplient naturellement et artificiellement par des lambeaux; 2°, que ces lambeaux deviennent souvent une, quelquefois plusieurs anémones; 3°, que de ces petites anémones, formées d'un même lambeau, plusieurs restent unies entre elles.

quoique

main connected, but that the greatest number separate by contractions. 4thly, That among those which remain connected there are some which grow to the largest size, such as the monstrous anemony mentioned in my second essay, in which three individuals had been blended together; and another of a smaller size in the shape of a Y<sup>(b)</sup>, represented in the plate of the same essay, which before my own eyes produced a young anemony, by tearing a small shred from the base of its coat.

What do we then perceive in these shreds? Nothing hitherto but a membrane which was before part of the base of the great anemony, a mere skin which was part of

(b) This species, which is so fertile in monstruosities, has also presented me with one which had two bodies on one base. Of the first species I have as yet seen but one monster, which on the contrary had two bases and only one body. I saw it at its birth.

its

quoique le plus grand nombre se sépare par étranglement; 4°, que parmi celles qui restent unies, il y en a qui deviennent de la plus belle grosseur, comme l'anémone monstrueuse dont j'ai parlé dans mon second mémoire, dans laquelle trois individus étoient confondus, et une autre moins grosse en forme d'Y (b), représentée dans la planche du même mémoire, qui produisit devant moi une petite anémone en déchirant un lambeau du bord de sa base.

Qu'apperçoit-on donc dans l'un de ces lambeaux? Jusqu'ici je n'y ai vu qu'une membrane qui faisoit auparavant partie de la base de la grande anémone, une

(b) Cette espèce seconde en monstruosité m'en a encore offert une qui a deux corps sur une même base. Je n'ai jamais eu qu'un monstre de la première espèce, il avoit au contraire deux bases et un seul corps. Je l'avois vu naître.

its coat; some muscular fibres and small internal filaments described in my second essay, as they appeared in the solar microscope; and a clammy substance filling up the interstices. When such a thread is decomposed, it changes into a whitish glutinous substance, which, through a microscope, appears a mass of minute globular bodies, that seem still to be of a compound texture, and some of which are of a larger size, and of an oblong oval shape (fig. 7.) as they may be often observed in sea-water viewed through a microscope. The circular edge of these threads which formed part of that of the old anemony, retains the faculty of adhering and loosening itself; nor do any of the fibres perish in the formation of the new animal; they only receive a new arrangement, or acquire a greater convergency. What cause can

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peau portion de sa robe, des fibres musculaires, des petits cordons dans l'intérieur dont j'ai parlé dans mon second mémoire après les avoir examinés au microscope solaire, et enfin une matière gélatineuse qui remplit les intervalles. Lorsque ces lambeaux se décomposent, il en résulte une matière blanchâtre, légèrement visqueuse, laquelle, vûe au microscope, offre des espèces de corps globuleux, très petits, qui paroissent composés, et parmi lesquels on remarque une grande quantité d'animaux plus grands, d'un ovale fort allongé, comme le représente la figure 7, et comme on en voit souvent dans l'eau de la mer examinée au microscope. Le bord en portion de cercle de ces lambeaux, qui formoit celui de la grande anémone, conserve la faculté de s'attacher et de se détacher; et dans la formation du petit animal les fibres ne se détruisent point, ils ne font que prendre comme l'on voit un nouvel arrangement, ou plus de convergence. Quelle peut donc être la

can we then assign to the tendency these fibres and these shreds have to form a new animal? It can easily be conceived that the exterior border of the shred, preserving the faculty of adhering, may form a segment of a smaller circle; but it might equally incline to form a segment of a larger one, did it not seem more natural that a body endowed with sensation, should rather endeavour to close a wound, than to open and rend it more and more. There must then be in this shred a certain degree of sensation, since in order to fix, and to loosen itself, occasionally, it must have a perception of its adherent or detached state. But there is even more than this in the shred we are examining; for allowing that the border assumes a circular shape, and thereby causes a convergency of the fibres, that the angles contract, and the wound closes, the result of which is a small animated body; yet it will always be  
difficult

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la cause par laquelle ces fibres, et le lambeau entier, tendent à former, et semblent former en effet une petite anémone? On conçoit aisément que le bord extérieur du lambeau, conservant la faculté de s'attacher, peut former une portion d'un plus petit cercle; mais aussi il pourroit en former une d'un grand, si ce n'est qu'il paroît plus naturel pour un corps doué de la faculté de sentir, de tendre à refermer une playe, que de l'ouvrir, ou de la tirailler de plus en plus. Il y a donc dans ce petit lambeau une forte de sensation, puisque pour s'attacher et se détacher au besoin, il semble qu'on doit sentir qu'on s'attache ou qu'on se détache. Il y a plus que cela dans ce lambeau que nous observons, car quand le bord s'arrondiroit, que par là les fibres prendroient de la convergence, que les angles se rapprocheroient, que la playe se consolideroit, qu'en résulteroit-il? un petit corps animé?

difficult to conceive how this small shred preserves all these faculties, how this animated being acquires the power of loco-motion, and whence proceeds the whole reproduction of an animal. Where shall we find the principles of the limbs, of the intestines, of the mouth, of the fold in the body, of the elegant tufts which terminate the limbs, &c. since nothing of all this can be observed in such a fragment? Shall we seek for that principle in the slender threads, the construction of which, seen with the solar microscope, had struck me with admiration? but my observations have not convinced me that they were intended for these purposes. What would have determined my opinion in favour of these filaments is, the facility with which they wrap themselves up in a spiral, and form certain parcels (which have the appearance

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animé? mais outre qu'il sera toujours difficile de concevoir comment ce petit lambeau conserve ces facultés, et comment ce corps animé acquiert celle de changer de lieu au besoin, on peut encore demander d'où procédera le développement qui suit? où se trouvera le principe des membres, des intestins, de la bouche, du pli du corps? d'où naissent ces beaux panaches qui terminent les membres, &c. puisque rien de tout cela ne se remarque dans cette partie? Chercherons nous ce principe dans les cordons déliés dont la structure, au microscope solaire, nous a paru si admirable? mais je n'ai pu trouver dans l'observation de quoi me convaincre qu'ils soient destinés à cet usage. Ce qui eût été bien plus capable de me fixer sur ces cordons, c'est la facilité qu'ils ont de se rouler en spirale, et de former des espèces de paquets qu'on apperçoit comme un

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pearance of small whitish bodies) near the border, between the skin and the base of the young anemonies, when they extend the latter. I might have been particularly influenced by the number of floating transparent globules, which, by means of the microscope, I have often seen among those filaments, and which appeared nearly of the same texture: but it must be here observed, that the illusions of the microscope are often very great, on account of the spherical form and transparency of those globules, which at first sight appear to have a large hole diametrically through them. The globules which, by means of the microscope, are often seen in sea-water, evidently contain a liquid; and here all my knowledge ends. Does the principle we are in search of exist in this gelatinous substance, concerning whose texture we  
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petit corps blanchâtre vers les bords, entre la peau et la base des jeunes anémones, lors qu'elles l'étendent. J'aurois pu encore être arrêté d'une manière plus particulière à l'aspect de certains globules flottans et transparens, que j'ai souvent trouvés au microscope parmi ces cordons, et qui me paroissent composés à peu près de même, autant que les illusions microscopiques permettent d'en juger; car ces illusions sont fort grandes à cause de la sphericité et de la transparence de ces globules, qui au premier coup d'œil semblent percés diamétralement d'un gros trou; et le microscope solaire ne m'a pas mieux servi que les autres à ce sujet. Ces globules, qui d'ailleurs se rencontrent souvent dans l'eau de la mer vue au microscope, sont sans doute remplis d'une liqueur; et voilà où se terminent toutes mes connoissances. Sera-ce dans la substance gélatineuse, dont la texture ne nous  
est



are as yet perfectly in the dark? If ever we discover this texture, it will probably lead us back to a more distant mechanism, and this to another of a still more delicate order: this last perceptible cause, will probably conduct us to the general order, that is to nature; and nature to its Author. But how satisfactory, how useful may it not prove to unravel by degrees (although perhaps with some uncertainty) even the coarsest mechanism by which nature operates? Shall we suppose that the gelatinous matter is nothing but an irregular, incoherent substance? At first sight the same might be said of the white substance of the brain, although it seem to have more consistency; yet in many places it appears fibrous, and if we could trace it through the nerves, we should no doubt discover a most admirable organization. The operations of nature in eggs, chrysalids,

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est point connue, qu'existera le principe que nous cherchons? Si nous la connoissons un jour, elle pourra bien nous renvoyer à un mécanisme plus éloigné; celui-ci à un d'un ordre plus délicat; et enfin la dernière cause aperçue, à l'ordre général, c'est à dire à la nature; et la nature à son auteur. Mais combien n'est il pas satisfaisant, combien ne peut il pas être utile, de développer peu à peu, quoiqu'avec quelque incertitude, le mécanisme même le plus grossier par lequel la nature opère? Cette matière gélatineuse ne seroit elle qu'un corps informe sans texture? à la première vue nous en dirions bien autant, de la substance blanche du cerveau, quoiqu'elle plus compacte; cependant en plusieurs endroits elle paroît fibreuse, et si nous pouvions y suivre les nerfs, nous découvririons sans doute une organisation admirable. Ce qui se passe

lids, nymphs, and a great number of marine bodies, seem to justify the opinion that there is, in certain humours, a kind of organization which is imperceptible to our eyes, and conceals from us great and important mysteries. All this must then be supposed to exist in the gelatinous matter contained in our small fragment: and it is this, perhaps better than the reproduction of parts, that will point out to us at large, the imperceptible operations of nature in the formation of the *fœtus*, of eggs, and perhaps of all that may be called a germ. It is thus that the different views taken of nature may mutually clear up each other. I have not the vain presumption to think that I shall be able to make a great progress in this dark career; all I boast is, that I have dared to enter into it. I have great expectations from the experiments I have

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dans les œufs, dans les chrysalides, dans les nymphes et dans une assez grande quantité de substances qu'on trouve dans la mer, &c. porte à croire qu'il y a dans certaines humeurs une sorte d'organisation qui nous échappe et qui couvre de grandes merveilles. Il faudra donc supposer tout cela dans la matière gélatineuse de notre petit lambeau : là, plus encore que dans les reproductions de parties, elle pourroit nous offrir en grand, ce qui précède en très petit la formation du fœtus dans l'œuf, et peut-être celle de tout ce qu'on peut appeller germe. C'est ainsi que les différens points de vue sous lesquels on peut considérer les opérations de la nature, pourroient s'éclairer mutuellement. Je n'ai pas la folle présomption de croire que je serai assez heureux pour faire beaucoup de chemin dans cette carrière obscure, je me sens seulement le courage d'y entrer.

have in view; but I shall be obliged to take up the subject far backwards. An accident has just now deprived me of my twelve little anemonies: the sea-water was, in the first days of March, so much troubled by the falling in of part of the cliff, &c. that my great anemonies of the first and third species have considerably suffered, and all the small ones of the fourth species died in one day. Another accident had just preceded this, and had occasioned the loss of a whole year's labour: on the 28th of January, REAUMUR's thermometer fell to  $15^{\circ}$  below the freezing point; I had then forty vases containing anemonies on which I was making experiments, and was at the same time attending to other avocations: notwithstanding all the measures I had taken to prevent it, the water froze in several of them: my anemonies however would not have died, since one of the first species, which I had

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Je compte beaucoup sur les expériences que je médite, mais je ferai obligé de reprendre les choses de loin. Un accident vient de me priver de mes douze petites anémones: l'eau de la mer, dans les premiers jours de Mars, a été tellement troublée par l'éboulement des falaises, &c. que mes grandes anémones de la première et de la troisième espèce ont considérablement souffert, et les petites de la quatrième sont toutes mortes en un même jour. Un autre accident avoit précédé, et m'avoit fait perdre un an de travail: le 28 Janvier, le thermometre de REAUMUR descendit à  $15^{\circ}$  de condensation; j'avois alors quarante vases d'anémones de mer en expérience, et mes soins étoient partagés par d'autres objets: quelque précaution que j'aye pris, l'eau de plusieurs gela; mes anémones n'en seroient

on purpose suffered to freeze out of the water, did not perish; but they suffered a good deal, and I am determined to avoid all uncertainty in my experiments.

If we judge of the multiplication of the anemonies of the fourth species, by the number of young ones that are seen round the large ones, it must be very considerable. This species also affords us a singularity which is not observable in the fresh-water polypi, that of multiplying by tearing off, of its own accord, small shreds from its body.

Although the main object of this essay be the generation of the fourth species, I cannot however omit observing that several of its individuals, having been cut into two equal parts perpendicularly to their bases, formed each of them two compleat anemonies. And I beg leave to insert here an observation on the first species,

which

seroient pas mortes, puisqu'une de la première espece, que j'ai fait geler exprès à sec, n'a point péri : mais elles ont beaucoup souffert, et je ne veux aucun equivoque dans mes expériences.

A en juger par le nombre des petits qu'on trouve autour des grosses anémones de la quatrième espece, leur multiplication est très nombreuse : elle offre aussi, comme on vient de voir, une singularité que ne nous ont point présentée les polypes d'eau douce, celles de se multiplier en s'arrachant elles mêmes des petits lambeaux.

Quoique ce mémoire ait pour objet la génération de la quatrième espece, je ne laisserai pas d'indiquer que plusieurs de ses individus, coupés en deux portions égales perpendiculairement à leur base, ont formé chacun deux anémones : et

d'insérer

which will in some measure supply the want of an essay, the publication of which is retarded by the abovementioned accident.

A FURTHER OBSERVATION. ON THE FIRST SPECIES.

TOWARDS the end of the year 1774, I cut in two, in a perpendicular direction, an anemony of the first species, which had been formed from a moiety of one I had cut before, so that each half was then only a quarter of the primitive anemony. These two halves had the same fate as the first sections; and one of them, after having been thus restored, and having been always kept by itself, produced, on the 1st of June 1775, a young anemony as perfect as those that are produced at sea, and of the same colour as the mother. It must be remembered  
that

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d'insérer ici une notice sur la première espèce qui suppléera en partie au mémoire dont les accidents que je viens de rapporter retarderont la publication.

NOTICE SUR LA PREMIERE ESPECE.

A LA fin de 1774, je coupai par la moitié, dans une direction perpendiculaire à sa base, une anémone de la première espèce, qui après l'avoir été, s'étoit reformée : chaque moitié n'étoit donc alors que le quart de l'anémone primitive. Ces deux parties ont fait comme la première fois ; et une d'elles, après s'être ainsi reformée, et avoir toujours vécu en particulier, me donna, le premier Juin 1775, une petite anémone, aussi parfaite que celles qui naissent à la mer, et de la même couleur que la mère. Qu'on juge de ma surprise quoique je m'attende à tout ; et  
fi.

that in this species, the young ones are entirely formed in the inside of the animal, whence they are put forth through the mouth; so that, whatever idea we may form to ourselves of this species of beings, we can find no real analogy between any sections from them, and those torn from stems and roots of certain trees, with a view to multiply them. The young anemony we are speaking of is not large enough to favour the supposition that it had been ready for birth, in that part of the old anemony, for more than two years before; since some young anemonies of this species, which I had kept in order to observe their encrease, have in ten months time grown to double the diameter of their bases, without my having ever taken the trouble to feed them: and it is besides known, that it is usual for these anemonies, when they

are

si on me demande, comment ceci, comment cela? je répondrai sans rougir (puisqu'on peut le faire maintenant) je n'en sçais rien. On se ressouvient sans doute que, dans cette espece, les petits sont entièrement formés au plus intérieur de l'animal, d'ou ils naissent plus ou moins gros par la bouche: ainsi on ne pourroit, quelqu' idée qu'on se fit de ces animaux, trouver d'analogie réelle entre ces sections, et celles qu'on fait aux tiges et aux racines de certaines plantes pour les multiplier. La petite anémone dont nous parlons n'est pas assez grosse pour qu'on puisse penser qu'elle ait résté prête à naître depuis plus de deux ans dans cette partie de l'anémone primitive, puisque des petits de cette espece, que j'avois précédemment gardés pour en observer l'acroissement, ont augmenté du double de leur diamètre en dix mois, sans que je prisse la peine de les nourrir; et on sçait d'ail-

leurs

are put to any pain, to eject all the young ones they contain.

The restored moiety produced another young anemony on the 7th of August, another on the 27th, one more on the 1st of September, a larger one on the 20th of October; whereas to this day the other half has not yet afforded me a single young one. Another circumstance worth notice is, that the two halves of the original anemony never produced any young ones, neither during their recovery, nor after their restoration.

Some persons, who interest themselves in the progress of my experiments, induced me on the 27th of June last, to cut an anemony of the first species perpendicularly into four parts. For this purpose I chose a very large one, just taken out of the sea; and on cutting it in that manner, it put forth twelve young ones. One of these

leurs qu'il est assez ordinaire qu'une anémone, lorsqu'elle souffre quelque incommodité notable, pousse dehors les petits qu'elle renferme.

Revenons à notre moitié réformée : elle m'a donné une autre petite anémone le 5 Août, une le 27, une le 1 Septembre, enfin une plus grande que les autres le 20 Octobre : jusqu'au 7 Mars 1776, que j'écris ceci, l'autre partie ne m'a point encore donné de petits. Une chose qui est à remarquer, c'est que les deux moitiés de l'anémone primitive, ni en se réformant, ni après s'être reformées, ne m'en avoient donné aucun.

Quelques personnes qui s'intéressent à mes expériences, m'inviterent le 27 Juin dernier, à couper, perpendiculairement à sa base, une anémone de la première espèce, en quatre parties, comme j'en avois coupé en deux : j'en pris une assez

these quarters adhered the next day to the side of the vase: on the 30th it had crept to the surface of the water. It looked healthy till the middle of November; but at the end of the year the wound was not yet perfectly healed: nevertheless, a few days after, it put forth a young one of a tolerable size. The cold of the 28th of January seems to have accelerated its dissolution. The second quarter had nearly the same fate, except that it yielded no young ones. The third produced, on the 6th of September, a young one of a very small size. On the 15th the wound seemed to be closed, but its place still appeared of a pale colour, transparent, and considerably depressed. On the 30th it put forth another small young one; and on the 26th of October, a third of a somewhat larger size. On the 29th of January 1776, after the water had been often frozen, I saw it put forth three  
young

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grosse qui venoit d'être péchée, et en la coupant ainsi, elle me donna douze petits. Une de ces portions s'attacha le lendemain aux parois du vase: le 20 elle étoit montée à fleur d'eau: elle a fait bonne figure jusqu'à la moitié de Novembre: à la fin de l'année la playe n'étoit qu'imparfaitement consolidée; peu de jours avant, sans avoir l'air vigoureux, elle avoit donné un petit un peu fort. Le froid du 28 Janvier a paru accélérer sa ruine. Il en a été à peu près de même de la seconde portion comme de la précédente; mais elle n'a point donné de petits. La troisième m'a donné un petit d'une petitesse extrême le 6 Septembre. Le 15, la playe paroissoit consolidée; mais la marque en étoit très sensible par la couleur pâle, la transparence, et un reste d'applatissment. Le 30 elle m'a donné un petit très petit, et le 26 Octobre un un peu plus gros. Le 29 Janvier



young ones of a moderate size. On the 31<sup>st</sup> it produced a seventh; but since the frost it has ever appeared in a weakly state. The fourth quarter, after several changes in its state of health, produced, on the 29<sup>th</sup> of November, three young ones; one large, the other of a middling size, and the third very small. After the severe cold it declined: it nevertheless put forth three more young ones, and died one of the first days in March. Thus from three of these quarters I had no less than fourteen young ones, besides the twelve the animal had produced during the operation. The interior contractions of the anemonies not only renders it difficult to cut them into four parts; but I have also observed, that those sections do not easily recover a cylindrical form, and that they are easily affected by frost or any other accident. This therefore is an experiment of little use,

which

1776, après que l'eau fut glacée plusieurs fois, j'ai vu naître trois petits de moyenne grosseur. Le 31 Février elle m'en a donné un septième; mais depuis la gelée, elle a fait mauvaise figure. Après des alternatives de bon et de mauvais état, la quatrième s'est réformée, et m'a donné le 29 Novembre trois petits, l'un gros, l'autre moyen, et le troisième très petit. Depuis le grand froid elle alloit mal; elle a cependant donné encore trois petits, et s'est décomposée dans les premiers jours de Mars. Voici donc quatorze petits donnés par trois de ces portions, indépendamment des douze que l'anémone avoit rendus en la coupant. Non seulement il est difficile de couper exactement une anémone en quatre, à cause des contractions intérieures; mais même j'ai remarqué que ces portions avoient bien de la peine à reprendre une forme cylindrique, et que les accidens comme la gelée et autres,

which I only relate on account of the number of young ones; and to shew, that even a quarter of an anemony tends towards refuming, and does sometimes actually resume the cylindrical form, which is the figure of the whole animal when it dilates itself.

les affectent beaucoup. C'est donc une expérience peu fructueuse, que je ne rapporte qu'à cause des petits; et pour faire connoître que jusqu'à un quart d'anémone tend, et peut même parvenir quelquefois à reprendre la forme cylindrique qu'à l'anémone entière lors qu'elle se dilate.



VIII. *Experiments and Observations in Electricity.*

By Mr. William Henly, F. R. S.

## P A R T I.

*Remarks on the effects of lamp-black and tar, or lamp-black and oil, as protectors of bodies from the stroke of lightning; with similar effects produced by experiments in the artificial electricity.*

Read, Jan. 16 and 23,  
1777.

**D**R. LEWIS, in his Philosophical Commerce of Arts, p. 364. mentions a remarkable instance of the effect of a coating of lamp-black and tar, in preserving those parts of the mast of a ship, which were covered with it, from damage by a stroke of lightning which shivered the other, that is, the uncoated parts of it, in a very extraordinary manner. The account is recited at large in vol. XLVIII. of the Philosophical Transactions. Captain NAIRNE, in his Remarks on the Effects of Lightning, on the masts of several vessels which were struck in the Basin at Québec<sup>(a)</sup>, mentions, in his letters to some friends in London, no less than five instances, where the lightning passing

(a) His own ship, the *Generous Friends*, was twice preserved there by his conductor.

over those parts of the masts of the ships which were covered with lamp-black and tar, or painted with lamp-black and oil, without the least injury, shivered the uncoated parts (tearing out splinters five or six feet in length, and six or eight inches deep) in such a manner as to render the masts entirely useless. A very curious instance of this kind hath lately been communicated to me by a learned and ingenious member of the Royal Society, from whom I received the account which I shall here insert *verbatim*,

“ On the first of April, 1776, being on board a brig  
“ in the latitude  $34^{\circ}$  N. our vessel was struck with light-  
“ ning, which disabled our fore-mast. Upon getting the  
“ whole of the top-masts down upon the deck, I ob-  
“ served the following particulars, with regard to the  
“ course and effects of the electrical matter. The light-  
“ ning had first struck the pinnacle of the fore-top-gal-  
“ lant-mast (on which, at that time, there happened to  
“ be no iron spindle, as usual) which it just split slightly  
“ for about two feet and a half, where it was painted  
“ with lamp-black and oil (I could not, however, ascer-  
“ tain whether this part of the mast had been newly  
“ split or not: it might have been first occasioned by  
“ driving in the iron spindle, whereon a vane is usually  
“ placed; for there was a hole where such a spindle had  
“ been

“ been fixed) and then the lightning immediately shi-  
“ vered the rest of that mast as far as it was greased, till  
“ it met the bottom of that and the top of the top-mast,  
“ which had likewise been coated over with lamp-black  
“ and oil, on an old coat of tar. Over these it glanced,  
“ without any perceptible effect, till it reached that part  
“ of the top-mast which was also greased; this part it shi-  
“ vered, splitting off large splinters which were thrown  
“ on the deck. The lower part of the fore-mast being  
“ tarred, the lightning slid over it for about nine  
“ feet, without the least mark of violence; then darted  
“ into the fore-mast, where it was greased; rived it ter-  
“ ribly, tearing off splinters as large as a man’s arm, and  
“ four or five feet long, all the way down. It continued  
“ this course till it again met a coat of tar, which was  
“ laid on the mast for more than five feet above the  
“ deck; here its effects on the mast disappeared, and its  
“ course seemed to be divided different ways by two at-  
“ tractive bodies of iron; one, in a cleet fastened to the  
“ fore-mast, about ten inches below the top of the last  
“ mentioned coat of tar, by two large spike-nails: this  
“ cleet with the nails was entirely struck off; the light-  
“ ning then tore the canvas coating round the foot of  
“ the mast (about a yard below the cleet) without any  
“ other hurt to the mast itself; and from thence was  
“ attracted.

“ attracted by a large anchor lying in a horizontal position on the deck, about two feet from the mast. All this part of the electrical matter seems to have been then discharged by the different conductors of the two flukes and the main shank of the anchor, without any other visible effect than breaking a piece out of a large iron pot, standing in an immediate direction to one of the flukes, and about ten inches distant. The other division of the electrical matter darted from the mast to the belfry, about fifteen inches distant, tore off two cleets fastened to it by large iron nails; then descended to the large iron hinges which hold the palls or stops (joined to the belfry-posts) of the windlasses, where, after tearing off a small nail or two, it totally disappeared. The belfry which was painted was much split, but not broke to pieces. The most remarkable part of this accident, and for which the whole relation is given, is, the effect of the tar and lamp-black and oil as repellents of the electrical matter; for in four instances, 1st, at the head of the fore-top-gallant-mast; 2dly, at the bottom of that and head of the top-mast; 3dly, at the bottom of the top-mast and head of the fore-mast; and 4thly, at the bottom of the fore-mast; the lightning had glanced over all those parts without doing the least damage, and had regularly darted into,  
“ and

“ and shivered all the intermediate parts of those masts,  
“ where they were covered with greafe. This appears  
“ so extraordinary to me, that I thought proper to take a  
“ note of it upon the spot, in order to occasion the making  
“ of some philosophical inquiries and experiments on  
“ the subject by those more capable of accounting for it  
“ than myself: and for that reason the above relation  
“ may be depended on as just and true, after a repeated  
“ and critical examination of the several parts of the  
“ masts which I have described. W. D.”

In consequence of this relation, and the hint which concludes it, I have been induced to make the following experiments. 1st, A glass tube, eight inches long, with a bore or cavity of about a quarter of an inch diameter, being filled pretty closely with lamp-black, and each end stopped with a bullet, the stem of which just entered, and was cemented in the cavity of the tube, conducted the charge of a jar containing three square feet of coated surface instantaneously, but with scarce any explosion. 2dly, Such a tube being filled with a mixture of lamp-black and oil (as used by the painters) entirely failed to conduct the shock. 3dly, The outer surface of such a tube being painted with lamp-black and oil, and excited with dry warm flannel, acted (the tube being also dry and warm) as a very strong negative electric. 4thly, A piece

of polished plate glass being introduced into the circuit; the ends of the wires which composed the circuit were laid at about an inch and an half from each other upon the surface of the glass, when the jar above-mentioned being discharged, the polish of the glass was always torn off in an irregular and deep line, extending from one wire to the other; but if a piece of glass painted with lamp-black and oil were thus introduced into the circuit, and the discharge made as before, not the smallest trace of the electricity could ever be perceived on its surface. 5thly, If instead of the glass, a slip of writing-paper was introduced into the circuit, it was torn in pieces by the explosion, much of it flying about the room in the form of fine flue or down. 6thly, A slip of the same paper, painted with lamp-black and oil, received not the least injury, nor shewed the smallest trace of the electricity upon its surface; but the common oiled paper, without lamp-black, was torn considerably, though not so much as the paper unoiled<sup>(b)</sup>. When the charge of the jar above-mentioned is made to pass between the surface

(b) Mr. CAVALLLO, who hath since repeated these experiments, finds, that if the paper be very thinly painted with the lamp-black and oil; it will be torn by the explosion; but having tried a piece of the same that I had used in my experiments, he was not able to make the least impression on it. Lamp-black and tar therefore, on account of the greater tenacity of the latter, and its being equally a non-conductor, seems to be the most proper for the purpose.



of thick plate glass, and that of a cylinder of ivory three-quarters of an inch diameter, pressed by a weight of about six or eight ounces Troy; the glass is always shivered into very small fragments, and part of it is sometimes reduced to an impalpable powder. But 7thly, If the plate of glass be covered with a slip of writing-paper, painted with lamp-black and oil, or with a slip of oiled silk (such as is frequently used for garments) the charge passes over these substances without leaving the smallest trace on either of them, though the glass under them be broken by the blow of the explosion.

From these experiments, and the observations above recited, I think the following corollaries may be deduced. 1st, That a charge of electricity, or a stroke of lightning, which is the same thing, passes, in many cases, upon the surface of bodies, in a much larger proportion than through the interior substance of them, as appears by the masts of ships, coated with lamp-black, &c.<sup>(c)</sup>, and by the experiment above recited, with the cylinder of ivory and the glass &c.; for in this experiment, the charge being resisted by the ivory (which however is sometimes split by the explosion) forces a passage between that and the glass, and being there confined by heavy weights, exerts

(c) See a curious instance of this kind in M. ADANSON'S *Voyage to Senegal*, p. 239.

its expansive power in such manner as to reduce to the smallest fragments the plate of glass then exposed to its violent operation. 2dly, This violent effort of the electricity produces not the least effect upon the surface of the slip of paper painted with lamp-black and oil, or upon a slip of oiled silk, placed in the same situation. 3dly, May not therefore a coating of lamp-black and tar, or lamp-black and oil, be in some cases usefully applied on slight buildings of wood, &c. to preserve them from damage by lightning, as well as to prevent those large cracks and rents (the usual effect of the heat of the sun) from being made in them? 4thly, As the effect of the lightning on the masts of ships has been in so many instances prevented by a coating of lamp-black and tar, or lamp-black and oil, it seems probable, that a safe and fixed conductor might be applied to them in a very cheap and convenient manner, as follows; *viz.* let all those parts of the mast which are usually greased, be provided with plates of metal three inches broad, which plates might extend a few inches upon the other parts of the mast which are coated with lamp-black and tar, or lamp-black and oil; and thus by the conductor of metal, and the protector of lamp-black and tar, placed alternately and extending the whole length of the mast, it would probably be preserved from damage by lightning. A  
metallic

metallic communication might be made from the mast to the water in the manner I have before mentioned, in Phil. Transf. vol. LXIV. p. 412. This method of making conductors to ships, from its simplicity and practicability, I had some thoughts of recommending to my acquaintance in the marine department; but there is one objection to it, which I think a very material one, and shall therefore state it in its full force: it is this; the lamp-black and tar, or lamp-black and oil, though they protect, by their property of repelling the electric matter, those parts of the mast which are coated with them, yet being perfect non-conductors, those things or persons which might happen to stand in their vicinity (as in the tops, &c.) would be in danger of a severe stroke, perhaps destruction, by the lightning. How far the other oil colours, *viz.* those prepared from minerals and metals, may answer these purposes, may perhaps deserve enquiry, and the more so, as the experiments are not difficult to make. The belfry-posts painted with white lead, mentioned in the letter above recited, were much shivered. 5thly, As oiled silk seems to be so good a security against the effects of a charge of electricity, may not garments, *viz.* cloaks and hats, covered with that substance, contribute in some measure to protect the wearers (if overtaken by a storm) from a stroke of lightning? particularly, if the precau-

tions be properly attended to, which I have before recommended from Dr. WINTHROP, in Phil. Transf. vol. LXIV. p. 151.

## P A R T . . . II.

*On the electricity of chocolate: and the restoration of that property to it, when lost, by melting it together with a small quantity of olive-oil.*

HAVING been informed by my ingenious friend Mr. GEORGE ADAMS, philosophical instrument-maker to his majesty, that Mr. SANDERS, an eminent manufacturer of chocolate, had frequently observed a very vivid light flashing upon its surface, when cooling in the tin pans in which it is received from the mill; particularly in clear, frosty evenings, when it would also strongly attract light substances, such as small particles of dust, bits of paper, straw, thread, &c. <sup>(d)</sup>; I was very desirous to ascertain, if I could, the cause of these phenomena. For this purpose I waited on Mr. SANDERS, in company with Mr. ADAMS, and made the following experiments. 1st, A large cake

(d) The wax-chandlers also, in forming their sticks, &c. of wax, are frequently spectators of these effects of electric attraction.

of chocolate being turned out of the tin pan, in which it had been set to cool; I presented towards it Mr. CANTON'S electrometer, and observed that, at six inches distance, the balls began to diverge; and when they came within two inches of the chocolate (being suspended over it) their divergence was full an inch and an half, and upon examining their electricity, I found the chocolate to be in a *plus* or positive state. 2dly, Having separated another large cake from the pan, I touched it repeatedly with the knob of a small phial, properly prepared for the Leyden experiment; then bringing that knob gently toward one of my knuckles, I saw a spark between them, and had a small sensation in my knuckle. 3dly, Having separated another cake of chocolate from the tin pan which contained it, I touched the cake repeatedly with the brass ball on the neck of my Leyden *vacuum*, or analysis of the Leyden bottle<sup>(e)</sup>, and instantly perceived a most beautiful and large pencil of rays darting from the wire, and spreading themselves through the bulb towards the coated part of the bottle. 4thly, Changing the position of the bottle, I presented the coated bulb towards the chocolate, and then perceived (as I expected) a small luminous spark upon the point of the wire in the neck of the bottle; completely proving the electrical quality of the

(e) Described in Phil. Trans. vol. LXIV. p. 400.

chocolate, and ascertaining its direction in the experiments.

Before I had an opportunity of making this complete investigation, I had separated a piece of chocolate from the tin pan in which it had been cooled, and accidentally left, for some months, under an open counter in a shop, exposed to dust, damp air &c.; notwithstanding which, on its separation from the pan, it attracted a thread of trial at a quarter of an inch distance. I then took a quarter of a pound of chocolate, and having melted it in an iron ladle, poured it into a tin pan, and the next day (it being perfectly cooled) separated it from the pan, and found it strongly electrified *plus*; but as the electricity was soon lost by handling (owing, I suppose, to the large quantity of conducting matter contained in it) I melted it again, but produced no electricity; which I imputed to the chocolate having become very dry and powdery. I therefore melted it a third time, adding a little oil of turpentine; but this trial also (perhaps from the evaporation of the spirit) failed. I then melted it the fourth time, and added a small quantity of olive-oil, sufficient as I imagined to reduce it again to its original consistence, and having cooled it in the tin pan as before, I found on removing it, that its electricity was completely restored. The large proportion of phlogiston in oil is well known; and as the addition of oil to the chocolate completely

completely restored its electricity when lost, is not this an indication of a great affinity at least between phlogiston and the electric fluid, if indeed they be not the same thing<sup>(f)</sup>? Further, as electricity is produced in the chocolate by heat and friction, and manifested by its usual phenomena in the cooling of that substance, *query*, may not electricity be produced from the other oily nuts, kernels, or seeds (particularly those of the torrid zone) treated in the same manner?

However, as the electric matter is resident in, and may be disengaged from, all the substances we are acquainted with; as the air is at all times replete with it; as its operation is so secret, so rapid, and at times so tremendous; as it is so easily excited or put in action by friction, by heating and cooling, and perhaps by means we are totally unacquainted with; I think we may safely conclude, that electricity, as it is one of the most powerful, is also one of the most important, agents in nature. Many useful discoveries have been made respecting the action, influence, and effects of this subtle fluid; but certainly much remains to be done, and the field for future labourers seems daily to enlarge. Indeed, notwithstanding the number of discoveries in electricity this age may justly boast of, I cannot but be of opinion (which I men-

(f) A thick scum from the surface of some linseed-oil exposed to the air, and thoroughly dried, became a very strong negative electric.

tion as an incitement to the study) that, compared with the facts still undiscovered in that branch of philosophy, they bear but a very small proportion.

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### P A R T     I I I.

*Observations on some new and singular phenomena in excited and charged glafs; with experiments made in consequence of these phenomena, further illustrating the Franklinian theory of the Leyden bottle; and a description of the apparatus constructed for that purpose by Mr. HENLY.*

HAVING carefully repeated the experiments with the two coated plates of looking-glafs, mentioned in my paper on Mr. VOLTA's machine, and finding with Mr. LANE, that they exactly agreed with the account given by Mr. SYMMER and Mr. EELES, I was desirous to be satisfied whether glaffes of a different thickness would be differently affected in the experiment. For this purpose I tried two large squares of crown or window-glafs, and found them to charge and discharge exactly as the looking-glafs plates had done; but on trying the experiment with two plates of Nuremburg glafs, commonly called Dutch plates, I was not a little surpris'd to find that each

of



of the plates, when separated after charging, had a positive and a negative surface; and that having replaced them, and made the discharge as in the Leyden experiment, the electricity of all the surfaces was changed, though it appeared to be very strong, and continued to give repeated flashes of light, when the plates were alternately closed, touched, and separated, as the looking-glass plates above mentioned. If a clean dry uncoated plate of looking-glass was placed between the coated plates, either of looking-glass or crown-glass, before they were charged; that uncoated plate was always found, upon separating them after charging, to be electrified negatively on both its surfaces; but if it was put between the Dutch plates, it acquired, like them, a positive and a negative electricity. As this phenomenon was not satisfactorily accounted for, it occasioned much conversation with respect to Dr. FRANKLIN's theory of the Leyden bottle, which I had myself (as I imagined) satisfactorily explained and even demonstrated. I was, however, soon convinced, that that theory is not so generally received as I imagined; for I met with a number of gentlemen who not only doubted, but seemed absolutely to deny it. This induced me to make some further experiments, in order (if I could) more fully to illustrate that theory, and to put the matter out of doubt. For

this purpose: a pretty large jar was coated and furnished as in fig. 1. A is the jar; BB the tin-foil coating; c a tin-stand which supports the jar; D a socket of metal which supports a rod of glass E; F a curved wire or plate of metal with points, not very sharp; this wire or plate of metal is fastened to the end of a brass rod G, which rod is moveable at pleasure in a spring tube H, that tube being fixed by a socket upon the top of the glass rod E. The charging wire of the jar communicates with both parts of the inside coating of the jar by horizontal wires (the ends of which are bent a little downwards) fixed at right angles to each other, in order to prevent shaking and rattling.

#### THE USE OF THE DOUBLE COATED JAR.

According to Dr. FRANKLIN's theory, the same quantity of the electric matter which is thrown upon one of the surfaces of glass in the operation of charging it, is at the same time repelled or driven out from the other surface, and thus one of the surfaces becomes charged *plus*, the other *minus*; and that this is really the case is, I think, satisfactorily proved by this contrivance. For example, place the jar as usual, with the knob in contact with the prime conductor; then work the machine, and the apparatus being perfectly dry and in good order, a small luminous spark will appear upon the upper point of the wire F (a plain indication that the point is then receiving electricity

electricity from the upper ring of coating on the outside of the jar) and a fine stream or pencil of rays will at the same time fly off, beautifully diverging from the lower point of the wire F upon the bottom ring of coating on the jar. When these appearances cease, which they will as soon as the jar becomes charged, let a pointed wire be presented towards the prime conductor; this will soon discharge the jar silently, during which the lower point of the wire F will be illumined with the small spark, while the upper point of the wire will throw off a fine pencil of rays, diverging towards the upper ring of coating, to which it stands contiguous, as upon Dr. FRANKLIN's hypothesis it ought to do. A wire of the same form as that marked F may be inserted on a small electric stand, fitted by a proper base to the bottom of the jar on the inside; this will shew the appearances when the jar is charged negatively.

The same experiment may be very conveniently made with a large pane of crown glass<sup>(g)</sup>, coated in two places at a proper distance from each other (fig. 2.) leaving a sufficient quantity of glass uncovered quite round the two coatings. This coated plate of glass should be fixed in a frame, and mounted upon a proper electric stand. Another stand of glass or sealing wax should be provided,

(g) Mine is eighteen inches by fourteen inches.

to support a wire or piece of metal placed horizontally, and curved so as to bring the ends of it, which should have blunt points, within half an inch distance of the two tin-foil coatings on one of the surfaces of the glass. On the opposite side of the glass, two wires, bluntly pointed, are also to be employed; one of these is to communicate with the prime conductor, and to throw off the electricity from thence upon one of the coatings of tin-foil placed contiguous to it; the other wire is to communicate with the earth, standing in a perpendicular direction, with the point bent towards and reaching within half an inch of the other coating of tin-foil (on the same surface of the glass) to receive the electricity thrown off by that coating, while the opposite side is charging.

#### EXPERIMENT.

The apparatus being perfectly dry (the uncoated part of the glass and the frame, &c. should be varnished), clean, and in good order; the plate of glass should be so fixed, that each of the four coatings of tin-foil may come within half an inch of the point of the wire opposed to it. The apparatus being thus placed, if a powerful machine be worked in a dark room, the electricity will be seen to issue from the point of the wire in contact with the prime conductor upon one of the tin-foil coatings A  
(fig.

(fig. 3.) charging it positively. The coating B (fig. 3.) on the other side of the glass throwing off, at the same time, an equal quantity of the electric matter, (visible in the form of a small luminous spark upon the point of the insulated wire F) is thus left in a negative state. The electricity passing along the insulated wire, flies off from the other point of it in a pencil of rays, diverging upon the tin-foil coating C (fig. 2.) on the same side of the glass, charging it positively; while the opposite coating D (fig. 3.) throws off its electricity, which is received in a small spark upon the point of the wire (G) opposed to it, and communicating with the earth. Thus, by the same operation of the cylinder, may a positive and a negative charge of electricity be obtained at the same time upon each surface of the glass; and by applying two curved discharging rods (which should have glass handles) at the same instant, so as to come nearly into contact with the coatings upon each surface of the glass, the whole will be discharged together; or if a pointed wire be presented near to the prime conductor, they will all be discharged silently, and then the appearances on the points of the wires will all be reversed; that which was a brush or pencil of rays being now a small luminous spark, and that which was a luminous spark being a brush or pencil of rays. If the machine be very powerful, the  
rubber

rubber may be insulated, and a blunt pointed wire, communicating with the earth, may be placed within half an inch of it; this wire, while the plates are charging, will throw off a beautiful pencil of rays diverging upon the rubber, and thus compleatly exhibit the progress of the electricity through all the apparatus, from its exit out of the earth to its entrance into the earth again: and its return may be manifested by reversing all the appearances upon the points of the wires, in the operation of discharging the glass silently by a pointed wire presented toward the prime conductor, as above directed. Another very satisfactory method of demonstrating the truth of Dr. FRANKLIN's hypothesis is as follows. I take a bottle, containing about one hundred square inches of coated surface, properly prepared for the Leyden experiment, and holding it by the wire, I set the coating upon the prime conductor, and charge it negatively (fig. 6.); when charged (if not too dry) the upper edge of the coating will throw off one or more pencils or brushes of light into the air, which visibly incline towards the charging wire of the bottle, and sometimes actually reach it. If I hold the bottle by the coating, and present the knob to the prime conductor, charging it positively (the bottle being in a proper state) a small spark of light first appears upon the edge of the cork in the neck of the bottle, through which

which the wire passes; after a few turns of the globe, this spark becomes a fine brush, darting out from the cork, and gradually lengthening, till it forms a beautiful arch, the end of it regularly extending downward, till it reaches the edge of the coating and rests upon it (see fig. 5.). I remember, when I first shewed these experiments to my sincerely respected and worthy friend the late ingenious Mr. FERGUSON, F. R. S. he expressed great satisfaction; and assured me, that he thought them some of the most convincing he had ever seen exhibited for the purpose. If the bottle be dry, it will, in both cases, be discharged spontaneously; but if the uncoated part of the glass be then breathed upon, the appearances may be produced at pleasure. I have lately prepared another bottle for this purpose, the inside of which is coated in the usual manner; but the outside is covered with square pieces of tin-foil about a quarter of an inch broad, and about three-sixteenths of an inch distant from each other; the bottom is completely covered with the coating (fig. 4.). If in charging this bottle, the electricity passed absolutely through the glass, it would find a ready conveyance by the coated bottom into the table (and then indeed it could never be charged at all); but the truth is, that this bottle does not become charged till strong flashes of electricity have passed, diverging

diverging in different directions quite round it. If it be discharged by bringing a pointed wire near the wire, or the prime conductor, with which it is in contact, the noise it occasions much resembles the report of a fired cracker; and the uncoated glass between the spots of tin-foil is very brilliantly illuminated. If the bottle discharges itself spontaneously, or be discharged suddenly, by making a regular communication by the rod between the two surfaces of the glass, the whole outside surface seems to be illuminated. To produce these appearances the glass must be thoroughly dry.

#### EXPERIMENT.

A smooth piece of mahogany, two inches square and five inches long, was hollowed into an elliptic groove, about three-quarters of an inch deep, and painted with lamp-black and oil. Into this groove two wires, terminated by brass balls each three-quarters of an inch in diameter, were introduced; the brass balls being placed about one inch and an half from each other: between the brass balls, at an equal distance from each, was placed a ball of the pith of elder, half an inch in diameter, nicely turned in a lathe. The apparatus being thus adjusted, and the circuit completed by a short chain, a bottle, containing forty square inches of coated surface,



was many times discharged through it; and whether the bottle was charged positively or negatively, the pith-ball constantly moved in the direction of the fluid, according to Dr. FRANKLIN's hypothesis. This is a delicate experiment; but, as I have perfectly succeeded in it, I thought it proper to give this short account of it. Perhaps if the pith-ball were suspended by a silk string, it might answer the purpose as well; but this I have not tried.

## E X P E R I M E N T.

In melting small wires some inches in length, I have often observed the wire to become red-hot, first at that end in contact with the discharging rod, and the redness has proceeded gradually and regularly towards the coating of the jars or battery; plainly and fully demonstrating the direction of the electric matter in the discharge of the jars or battery, which, for this experiment, were always charged positively. This phenomenon hath also been observed by Mr. BELL, and many times by Mr. NAIRNE.

## E X P E R I M E N T.

Before I quit the subject of the Leyden bottle, I shall mention one experiment more which I have lately made, and which gives a full and compleat answer to a paragraph in Dr. PRIESTLEY's History of Electricity, 2d edit, p. 465. l. 21. It is this: I procured some phials coated with sil-

ver, by burning it into the very substance of the glass, in such a manner that nothing can remove it without injuring the glass together with the metal. Glass thus coated and burnished has certainly a most elegant appearance, has no inequalities or points upon its surface, and charges as high and as readily as when it is coated with tin-foil; such glasses will discharge spontaneously, and one of them, which was very thin, was burst by the explosion; an accident which, by this double annealing, I was in hopes to have prevented, but was sorry to find myself disappointed.

#### OBSERVATIONS ON EXCITED GLASS.

In my remarks on Mr. VOLTA's curious little machine lately presented to the Royal Society, I have observed that the electric matter, being once thoroughly excited and put in action, is not so soon as might be expected reduced again to a quiescent state, especially in bodies so peculiarly adapted to affect each other as these appear to be. As a proof, I introduced the experiments with the looking-glass, crown-glass, and Dutch plates. I also mentioned Dr. PRIESTLEY's observations on the *residuum* of his battery; and in a note to that paper, I added an experiment made by my friend the rev. Mr. HEMMING, F. R. S. who shewed me a small bottle, which then attracted a thread of trial, though it had stood in a cup-

Board in his study seventy days from the time he charged it. I also mentioned a singular effect of his cylinder, which will separate the balls of Mr. CANTON's electrometer, at twelve or fourteen inches distance, sometimes a fortnight after using, though the air of the room may have been many times changed, and a variety of methods used to destroy that power in the interval. As the detail is curious, I shall here insert one set of experiments, as I find them registered in a journal, which Mr. HEMMING took the trouble to make for my satisfaction. On May 13 1776, the cylinder was used, and when placed in the cupboard at 10 o'clock A. M. it separated the balls at seven inches distance. The power was then entirely destroyed by breathing on it, and the electricity marked 0. From that time the journal proceeds as follows:

Day.	Hour.	Distance at which the balls diverge.
May 13.	11 A. M.	7 inches.
14	8 A. M.	13
Breathed on it once,		9.
Ditto four times,		8.
Door open till:	9 $\frac{1}{2}$ A. M.	5.
14.	3 P. M.	7.
	7 P. M.	6.
	10 P. M.	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ .
		Breathed

Day.	Hour.	Distance at which the balls diverge.
Breathed on it twice,		0 inches
May 14	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ P. M.	6
15	8 P. M.	13 wind N.
Door open ten minutes,		8
	9 P. M.	13
	10 P. M.	8
The power destroyed by flame,		0
16	7 A. M.	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ wind N.
18	8 P. M.	17 wind N.
	11 P. M.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
Destroyed by flame,		0
20 A fire in the room the whole day.		
	4 P. M.	2
	8 P. M.	1
	10 P. M.	3
21	7 A. M.	9
	9 P. M.	9
Destroyed by flame quite round		0
22	7 A. M.	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
	10 A. M.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$ wind N.
Applied flame quite round the cylinder,		0
	1 P. M.	12 $\frac{1}{2}$

*Observations in Electricity.*

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Day.	Hour.	Distance at which the balls diverge.
May 22	4 P. M.	12 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches.
	8 P. M.	{ flame quite } { round. } 0
	10 $\frac{1}{2}$ P. M.	2

23d, Mr. HEMMING shewed me the experiment, when I saw the balls separate at twelve inches distance from the cylinder. The cause of these phenomena is, no doubt, the excited electricity lodged in the pores of the glass acting upon the vapour in the air of the room, and producing a greater or less effect, as circumstances may contribute to increase or diminish its operation. The cylinder was now used again, which closed this set of observations. Mr. HEMMING has added a meteorological journal for the time; but the particulars of this I did not think it necessary to introduce in the above extract.

A SECOND SET OF OBSERVATIONS.

Feb. 3, 1777, the cylinder was excited, and from the 5th to the 14th no fire had been made in the study.

Day.	Hour.	Distance at which the balls diverge.
14 <sup>(b)</sup>	3 P. M.	7 inches.
	10 P. M.	0
15	9 A. M.	11

(b) This was the first time, since August or September, that I had observed my cylinder to retain its attractive power longer than twelve hours after being excited, though it was constantly kept in the same place, and, as well as I can observe, under the very same circumstances.

Feb.

Day.	Hour.	Distance at which the balls diverge.
Feb. 15	4 P. M.	8 inches.
	9 P. M.	0
	10 P. M.	0
A large fire in the study the whole day.		
16	9 A. M.	9
	12	9
	8 P. M.	0
	10 P. M.	0
17	9 A. M.	3
	6 P. M.	2
	11 P. M.	0
18	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ A. M.	2
Abſent till 22d,	3 P. M.	8
	6 P. M.	2
	7 P. M.	0
	11 P. M.	0
23	8 A. M.	7
	2 P. M.	2
	5 P. M.	0
	9 P. M.	0
	11 P. M.	0
24	9 A. M.	0
	12	0
	3 P. M.	0

Feb.

Day.	Hour.	Distance at which the balls diverge.
Feb. 25	9 A. M.	2 inches.
Absent till 28th,	3 P. M.	2
	9 P. M.	0
Mar. 1	9 A. M.	0
The fire in the study put out at noon.		
	10 P. M.	0
2	9 A. M.	0
	1 P. M.	0
Absent till 8th,	3 P. M.	9 $\frac{1}{2}$
	6 P. M.	4
	8	0
	9 } P. M.	
	10 }	
9	8 A. M.	9
	7	0
	8 } P. M.	
	10 }	
10	8 A. M.	8

The cylinder was now excited again, which closed this set of observations. These changes in the electricity seem very extraordinary, and I think them not easily to be accounted for, as they happened in states of the weather which were totally different. I regret, however, that an accurate and sensible hygrometer was not observed the

whole time; and for such a purpose I should recommend Mr. COVENTRY'S, made with a number of circular pieces of issue-paper, amounting to a certain weight, thoroughly heated and strung on a thread, kept separate from each other by a small glass bead, and suspended on one of the ends of a lever, nicely poised, and turning freely on its axis; the other end serving as an index to a graduated scale, on which it shews the weight of the moisture imbibed at any time by the papers. This hygrometer, from its extreme sensibility, I should choose, I say, to recommend for this purpose, in preference to any other that I have ever seen.

HAVING lately had occasion to shew the experiments with the coated Dutch plates to an excellent electrician (Mr. CAVALLO) and having charged them as high as I could, and separated them I think rather more expeditiously than usual, I was astonished to find, that the very same plates I have so often mentioned were now charged, the one positively, the other negatively, on both surfaces. I then laid them together, and having made the discharge as usual, I separated them, and found one of the plates negative on both sides, and the other plate positive on one surface, and negative on the other. Here was a new cause of admiration, and I was utterly at a loss to account for it, as the plates had in every instance be-



fore uniformly acted as represented in my paper. At length I recollected, that this experiment had been made rather more expeditiously than usual: I therefore repeated it, and having allowed somewhat more time between the removal of the plates from the prime conductor, and the separation of them, in order to examine their electricity, I found on each plate a positive and a negative surface; and having replaced them and made the discharge, I observed that the electricity of all the surfaces was changed. I have mentioned this circumstance, to shew how small a difference in the manner of making an experiment, will make an essential difference also in the result. There is something, however, very singular in this kind of glass, which I believe is owing to its not being properly annealed; for I once met with a plate of it which I found very difficult to charge at all; and when a small quantity of electricity had been forced into it, it dissipated proportionably sooner, without the use of the discharging rod.

In glass, properly annealed, whether in the form of plates or jars, prepared for the Leyden experiment, the dissipation of the electricity is, in some states of the atmosphere, a remarkable, and sometimes (when there is not a fire in the room) a disagreeable circumstance: this effect, however, in the jar itself, may be in a great measure prevented, by having the uncoated part of the glass

neatly covered with the best varnish<sup>(g)</sup>; and I should not omit to observe, that Mr. HEMMING's bottle, which retained its charge so long, was prepared in this manner.

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## P O S T S C R I P T,

*Containing some experiments and observations on Mr. VOLTA's machine, by Mr. TIBERIUS CAVALLLO, with remarks by Mr. HENLY.*

Mr. VOLTA's machine, which occasioned several of the preceding enquiries, hath lately been made by Mr. CAVALLLO, by coating the glass plate (about six inches in diameter) with sealing-wax. With one excitation of this plate he soon charged a bottle compleatly, and with that charge pierced three holes in a card, which he hath since shewed me. If, when this machine acted vigorously, he inverted the excited plate, and set the brass plate upon the glass, he produced a contrary electricity, but in a much smaller degree. If when the sealing-wax was strongly excited, so that sparks, two inches long, might be drawn from the brass plate, the excited wax, &c. was placed on an electric stand, and the process continued as usual; the sparks from the brass plate presently dimi-

(g) The varnishing should be several times repeated.

nished, and in a short time almost totally ceased: this, I think, clearly indicates that the electricity in the lower surface of the glass and the table were mutually affected in the operation, as well as that, in the excited sealing-wax and the brass plate<sup>(b)</sup>. I have seen one of these machines, made by Mr. CAVALLO, act so strongly that, upon separating the brass plate from the sealing-wax, a flash has struck from the brass toward the table, and it has besides given a strong spark upon the knuckle, when held at upwards of an inch distance. If the brass plate, after being raised from the wax, be presented with its edge toward the wax (lightly touching it) and thus drawn over its surface, the electricity of the plate, he observes, will be absorbed by the sealing-wax, clearly shewing the strong negative state in which the excited wax is left on the removal of the brass plate.

The attraction between the plates is also sometimes so strong, that the coated glass has frequently been lifted up by the brass plate from the table; yet in a few days, being carefully placed in a proper repository (in contact with each other) not the least sign of electricity has been

(b) It has been supposed by some gentlemen, that the very same quantity of electricity imparted by the finger to the plate on touching it, was emitted again by the plate on removing it from the electric and presenting it towards the knuckle; and that therefore, in air perfectly dry, this machine would at all times exhibit its phenomena without a fresh excitation of the electric, and thus merit the appellation of a machine for exhibiting perpetual electricity: but the fact above mentioned entirely refutes that supposition.

discoverable on their separation: so far is even this machine from exhibiting perpetual electricity. Indeed, in this particular, it is far exceeded by Mr. GREY's apparatus of the cone of sulphur in the glass, which, on being separated, I have never perceived to fail of exhibiting strong signs of electricity, in every state of the weather. To this apparatus I have lately added the improvements of M. *ÆPINAS*, and find that they fully answer his report.

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THE following paper contains a set of experiments which may perhaps lead to some curious, useful, and important truths in electricity. They are made with the most simple apparatus, and in the most simple manner; nothing more being requisite for this purpose than a few sticks of sealing-wax (one of them being reserved as a test) to the ends of which the substances to be examined are to be fixed or tied as occasion may require, and Mr. CANTON's electrometer, neatly made and properly insulated. With this small apparatus may almost every article that can be proposed be examined with the utmost facility. The animal, the vegetable, the fossil kingdom, with all the works and combinations of art and manufacture, may afford materials; almost any of which, by a slight friction against woollen cloth or silk, will become

5. electrified

electrified (either positively or negatively, according to the nature of the substance and form of its surface, and the quality and surface of the rubber) sufficiently to separate the balls of the electrometer, so as to determine their electricity in a very satisfactory manner. This, I think, fully confirms an opinion I have long entertained and mentioned in a former paper, *viz.* that the slightest friction of bodies of every kind, in every situation, may disturb the electric matter contained in them, though the effect be imperceptible to us, having no electrometer nice enough to discover it. Here, therefore, is a boundless field for future enquiry; and, to assist those who may be inclined to prosecute it, I shall mention a few general observations and precautions, which I have found exceedingly useful in the course of my own experiments. 1st, The air should be dry, and the apparatus clean and warm. 2dly, The substances to be tried should be perfectly clean. 3dly, When the rubber hath been used once or twice, it should be held near the fire or the flame of a candle, not only to prevent its acquiring moisture, but to take off the electricity left in it by one substance, before another be examined; for it should always be remembered, that whenever a substance is made electrical by friction, the rubber acquires the contrary electricity, and this electricity, if it be not carefully taken off as is above directed, will

will sometimes remain in it so as to confuse and actually mislead in the experiments. 4thly, Some minute substances, as a small leaf, seed, or hair, will not be easily excited in damp weather; these, therefore, as well as the apparatus, should be warmed; for heat, I find, doth always dispose bodies to become electrical. 5thly, The insulating stands, and the sticks of sealing-wax, with which the substances to be examined are connected, should not be rubbed, lest they, by the friction, should be made electrical, and, acting through the substance in contact with them, deceive in the experiment. 6thly, The animal substances, as hair, horn, bone, cartilage, nails, teeth, muscles, &c. become electrified positively, by friction, against woollen cloth or black silk; and the vegetable creation, with very few exceptions, negatively. The metals differ with respect to kinds, form, and surface, and may be differently affected by different rubbers. Lastly, I must not omit to observe that, among vegetables, I find the hot, acrid, pungent, and aromatic substances, as the spices, &c. to be much more easily excited, and stronger in their power, than the cold ones, as the seeds of gourd, melon, or cucumber. Among the herbs, hemlock and parsley are strong: a single leaf of laurel, bay, yew, rosemary, &c. will be found very powerful; but, as I have before observed, this field is indeed immense, and life itself too short

short for a compleat investigation. The experiments prove, however, how universally the electric matter is diffeminated; or, in other words, its existence in all bodies; with what readinefs it is excited; and, I think, the constancy of its action (though imperceptible to us) as well as its use and importance as a principal agent in the greatest, and to mankind the most interesting, operations in nature. I have enclosed a catalogue, exhibiting at one view the articles I have had an opportunity to try, with their kinds of electricity marked against them; hoping this specimen may induce gentlemen of more leisure to pursue the enquiry.

Hair, wool, down, and many other articles, may be made up in the form of little tassels, and in this manner readily fixed upon or tied to the end of an electric for experiment.

The following substances being fixed or tied upon the end of a stick of sealing-wax, and excited by friction against a woollen garment or a piece of soft black silk, became electrified as marked in the columns of the annexed table. The strongest in power are distinguished by the letter s, and the weakest by the letter w.

## M E T A L S.

	Wool.	Silk.
A new guinea; a smooth six pence; a brass ferule; tin, and tin-foil; enamelled copper, s; gilding on leather, s; lead ore; copper ore; iron ore; stream tin;	Neg.	Neg.
Milled lead; copper, s; a polished steel button, s; a new silver ditto; a metal button gilt, s; tutenague ditto, s; iron;		
Lead from a tea-chest, in which there is a mixture of tin, w;	Neg.	Pof.
A gilt button, basket pattern; the juncture at the end of a brass ferule;	Pof.	Neg.

## A N I M A L



ANIMAL SUBSTANCES.

Tortoise-shell, w; ivory, s; bone, s;  
 horn; lamb's-tooth; horse's-hoof; deer's-  
 hoof; muscle of the leg of a deer, s;  
 cartilage, s; spur of a young cock;  
 bill, claw, and scale from the leg of a  
 turkey, s; scale of a carp; the *chrysalis* of  
 a moth, recent from the earth, cleansed;  
*crassamentum* of the human blood ex-  
 ficated, w; quills; claw of an unboiled  
 lobster; cowrie and several other smooth  
 shells, s; shell of a hen's egg; tail of  
 a small fish; thigh of the elephant bee-  
 tle; a small beetle, smooth surface; hu-  
 man hair; red and white horse's and bul-  
 lock's hair, s; hog's bristles, s; wool;  
 silk from the worm, w; oyster-shell,  
 smooth surface;

Wool. Silk.

Pos. Pos.

Mother of pearl, and several other  
 shells;

Neg. Pos.

Muscle and cockle-shells, recent; a re-  
 cent snail-shell, rough surface; *elitra* of  
 the stag-beetle; oyster-shell, rough sur-  
 face;

Neg. Neg.

## V E G E T A B L E S.

Wool. Silk.

Rind of chestnut, s; Barcelona nut-shell, s; cashew nut, s; cocoa nut-shell polished; brazil; *lignum vitæ*; black ebony, s; box, w; cane, s; *quinquina*, or Peruvian bark, s; tamarind-stone; coffee-berry roasted, s; nutmeg, s; ginger, s; white pepper, freed from the husk, s; cinnamon, s; cloves, s; mace, s; all-spice, s; capficum, both sides of the pod, s; hemlock, s; a clove of garlic; ditto of eschalot, freed from the husk, s; a green onion, s; rue, s; cork, s; leaves of laurel, bay, yew, holly, rosemary, with their berries, s; parsley, s; leaf of turnip; ditto of Savoy cabbage, s; celery, s; fago, s; thyme, s; carrot; turnip; potatoe; an acorn, s; rind of Seville orange, s; a large Windfor bean, s; a white pea; root of the white lily; snow-drop root; seeds of gourd, melon, cucumber, w; a species of long-moss, w; an apple, s; down of the cotton-rush, w; sea-flag; leaf of the American aloe, s; cotton, w;

Neg. Neg.

Hemp;

	Wool.	Silk.
Hemp; flax; stalk of the tobacco-leaf;		
spike, from the leaf of the American aloe;	Neg.	Pos.
<i>palma-christi</i> nut; horse-radish;		

A white kidney-bean, smooth surface;	Pos.	Pos.
black negro of the same; scarlet of the		
same;		

C O R A L L I N E S.

Sea-fan, the horny part, w; rough	Neg.	Pos.
coral, w;		

Sponge, w; coral polished, w;	Pos.	Pos.
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S A L T S.

Allum, w,	Neg.	Neg.
<i>Borax</i> ,		
Nitre purified,	Pos.	Pos.
smooth surfaces;		

FOSSIL AND MINERAL SUBSTANCES.

Common pebble-stones of all colours,		
s; marble, s; pit-coal, s; black-lead,		
w; jet, s; <i>asbestos</i> ; mineralized ful-	Neg.	Neg.
phur; thunder-bolt stone; <i>cornu-ammo-</i>		
<i>nis</i> ; shark's-tooth; coat of petrification;		

Several smooth native crystals; brown		
Iceland ditto; <i>talc</i> , s; Ceylon pebble,	Pos.	Pos.
smooth and transparent; agate, s; corne-		
lian; amethyst, s;		

A specimen

A specimen of *gypsum*,

Wool. Silk.  
Neg. Pos.

#### ARTIFICIAL SUBSTANCES.

Staffordshire ware glazed; China ware, s; Wedgwood's ware glazed, s; whale's fin prepared, w; writing-paper; parchment, s; sheep's gut,	}	Pos. Pos.
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Tobacco-pipe, s; Wedgwood's ware unglazed; elastic gum, s; hard under-crust of a leaf; a tallow-candle, w; oiled silk; painted paper, s; silver, burnt into glass, unburnished; pearl-barley, w; Indian ink, w; blue vitriol, s,	}	Neg. Neg.
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Dr. LEWIS's glass porcelain,	Neg. Pos.
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Silver burnt into glass, burnished, could not be excited either with the woollen or silk. It is supposed that the substances being so intimately incorporated or blended together, the friction at the same time excited both the substances, so as to counteract and destroy the effect of each other.

In these experiments I have been assisted by Mr. CAVALLLO and Mr. ADAMS, who have carefully repeated them in my presence. It may be proper to observe also, that the white pea, a scarlet bean, and the thorn from

the American aloë<sup>(b)</sup>, being rubbed upon new, fine, claret-coloured cloth, became weakly electrified positively.

A lock of black hair from a young colt I have observed to become very weakly electrified negatively, when excited either with wool or silk.

It will be proper to observe, that the rubber of woollen cloth, which I used in the preceding experiments, was a part of the coat or waistcoat which I happened to wear at the time; but being desirous to try the effect of another, I took a piece of fine, new, white flannel, and using that side of it which is free from knap, I perceived a remarkable difference; *viz.* the copper and other buttons, the different stones, shells, China ware, most of the animal substances (hair excepted) and all the vegetable ones, which with the former rubbers were positively, being now negatively electrical; but those which were negative with them, I found to be negative with these also<sup>(i)</sup>. In all the experiments with the flannel, I had  
hitherto

(b) All these substances have smooth surfaces.

(i) On this account an ingenious friend of mine proposed the following question, *viz.* Whether, if the electric matter were inherent (as I asserted) in the different substances I examined, the kind of electricity could be changed by the use of different rubbers? I reminded him of Mr. CANTON's experiments with a glass tube, and informed him, that a stick of sealing-wax becomes positively electrified by dipping it in quicksilver, or exciting it with a slip of tin-foil; that a smooth glass tube may be made negative by drawing it cross-wise  
over

hitherto warmed the substances, but kept the rubber cold; suspecting that, in some cases, the result might be different from what it is when the rubber is warm and the substance cold: but this, with the effect of cloths of different textures and colours, silks, fattsins, velvets, leather dressed in oil, and in allum, &c. used as rubbers, I have not had leisure to determine. A small turnip and a potatoe, which I could not excite at all with either of the rubbers when they and the substances were cold, I excited in a very small degree with the flannel a little warmed; but very strongly when the flannel and the respective articles were, each of them, moderately warm. A sprig of celery acted very powerfully when the flannel only had been previously warmed <sup>(k)</sup>. As in all cases the rubber is affected with an electricity contrary to that of the substance rubbed, it will be sufficient for

over the back of a cat, or by exciting it with a dry, warm rabbit's skin; that a small coated bottle may be charged with a slip of writing-paper, excited by drawing it briskly between the fingers of a dry hand so as to pierce a hole in a card; that the dry leathern cover of a book may be made strongly electrical by the friction of a dry hand, and that its electricity is remarkably shewn by touching it with an insulated button, in the form of the plate to Mr. VOLTA'S machine. He then acknowledged, that such an objection as he had started must certainly be groundless.

(k) A *palma-christi* nut was excited very strongly with the flannel, weakly with my coat, and not all (in a room where there was no fire) with the black silk. I have also to add, that some particular substances, though negatively electrical when heated, become positive when cold, by friction against the very same rubber.

many purposes to use a rubber with a handle of glass, wax, &c. with which the electricity of many fixed bodies, gems that are set in metals, &c. and other articles that it would be improper to divide or remove, may be determined. Such rubbers of different forms have been constructed and satisfactorily employed in a variety of instances by Mr. ERRINGTON and Mr. CAVALLLO, who have extended their enquiries far beyond the limits at which I desisted; their collection of animal, vegetable, fossil, and artificial substances, added to my catalogue, amounting to almost one thousand articles.

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## C O N C L U S I O N.

AT the conclusion of the second part of the preceding paper, in my remarks upon the electricity of chocolate, I have observed, that many and great discoveries have been made in this age, respecting the action, influence, and effects of electricity; but it is a question that hath been frequently put to electricians, What is electricity? For my own part, I have generally chosen (perhaps for want of a better answer) to reply by a similar question, *viz.* What is air? or, what is water? For, as these are understood to be fluids distinct from all others, and

distinguished by the names they bear, so have I ever considered electricity as a fluid *sui generis*, and properly characterised by the term electricity, electric fluid, or electric matter; and have always avoided the term electric fire, as conveying a confused idea of actual inflammation, burning, &c.: but I now begin really to doubt, whether another appellation might not be applied with greater propriety; whether electricity may not be considered as a pure, ethereal, elementary fire, inherent in all bodies, intimately connected or blended with an earthy or other base, and apparently, though not actually, remaining in it in a quiescent state, till roused into action by some proper application, as motion, or rather friction, which may, and probably does, collect it in our experiments. (But can motion convey instantaneously that which is not material, but only a quality, a property, an accident, or affection, of matter, through such circuits as those of Dr. WATSON, and produce such astonishing effects at the interruption of those circuits? Besides, in Dr. FRANKLIN's most curious and decisive experiment of charging the Leyden bottle with its own electricity, the glass undergoes no friction whatsoever; but the electricity inherent in it is simply exhausted from one of its surfaces, and forced round upon the other by the electrical apparatus: the same may be asserted of bodies presented toward a conductor negatively electrified,



electrified, or to the insulated rubber of the electrical machine.) That it may be said to reside in vegetables, and is extracted together with their oil; that in fermentation, effervescence, and putrefaction, it flies off in the phlogistic vapour thence arising (see note 1. at the conclusion of this paper); that in distillation it is disengaged and brought over in an ardent spirit, in which it resides, retaining its original properties in a purer base; that, since by the collision of flint, steel, &c. actual fire is instantaneously produced (as in the instance of the dry axle of a carriage, which, by the friction of the nave against it, soon takes fire) so by the friction of other bodies, which by long perseverance would produce the same effect, this latent fire may be first excited, and its appearances, though unobserved, be those we term electrical. A wind-mill, when it works under the break (as the millers term it when no iron is concerned) soon catches fire (the mill-stones, when no corn is between them, produce the same effect, though the motion be the same in both cases) and many a mill hath been consumed by this means. The method used by the Indians, of producing fire by the friction of two pieces of wood against each other is well known; and in all these cases may not the first effects of the latent fire, thus roused into action, be the production of those very appearances we call electrical? See notes 2. 3. 4. 5. and 6.

This thought, I confess, remained so strongly impressed upon my mind, that I requested some of my friends, who had a better opportunity than myself, to make the trial. For this purpose some pieces of wood were baked in an oven, in order to expel the moisture, and prepare them for the experiment. When they were cooled, a friction was begun, which, as I expected, soon produced electricity; one piece of the wood being excited positively, the other negatively, as I have since myself several times experienced. Had the friction been continued, the production of actual fire might perhaps have been the consequence. May not, therefore, the production of actual fire be the *ultimum* of electricity? or, in other words, electricity the first effect of latent fire thus roused into action; actual fire, the second; and inflammation and dissolution, its third and greatest effort? like fermentation, producing first, wine; secondly, vinegar; lastly, putrefaction. To give some countenance to this supposition, let some of the effects of electricity and fire be placed in a comparative view. First, a small iron wire, held in the flame of a candle till it acquires a white heat, will frequently burst into little balls, flying off in all directions. The same effect is produced by a flint and steel; and in a superior manner, by a strong charge of electricity, or a flash of lightning passing through such

a small wire; the balls then appearing, on examination, to be little more than the *scoria* of the metal. The effect of electricity, lightning, and fire, in destroying the power of the artificial or natural magnets, is a circumstance that hath been often remarked, and repeatedly published. The effects of electricity, in common with fire, on proof-spirit, gun-powder, *phosphorus*, dry lint, and many other substances, must occur to every gentleman conversant in these experiments; indeed the parallel might be continued much further. But it may be asked, if this be really the fact, should not metals become electrical by friction? I answer, they are readily excited, provided they be first properly insulated; (but if metal be rubbed against metal, the phlogiston or latent fire, if I may be allowed the expression, is so nearly proportioned in the two metals, that the equilibrium is restored as soon as destroyed, from the very nature of the base, which is the most perfect conductor we are acquainted with) to illustrate this, let it be remembered, that though the hydrostatic paradox may be readily explained, yet the fluid must be confined in a proper vessel; and though the weight, the spring, and the compressibility of the air, be easily demonstrable, a suitable apparatus must necessarily be employed for each purpose.

It is a question by no means decided, how the clouds become electrified? But if we suppose the electric matter to be a pure, ethereal, elementary fire, resident in all bodies; that the great process of vegetation is carried on by means of this subtil, active, volatile, and pervading element; that it is continually exhaling from all the vegetable tribe; that as evaporation is a remarkable agent in the cooling of heated substances, that is, a good conductor of their fire, as I am well assured it is of electricity; may we not conclude, that this is one great cause of the clouds becoming at times surcharged with this fluid? The great effect of electricity in promoting vegetation, hath been fully proved by Dr. DE MAIMBRAY, the abbé NOLLET, Mr. JALLABERT, and other gentlemen, and was very remarkable in that year when the fatal earthquake happened at Lisbon. Dr. STUKELEY's observations on the frequent appearances of fire-balls, coruscations, and *auroræ boreales*, at this time (which I well remember) deserve to be particularly noticed; and it is generally remarked, that thunder-storms are preceded by a continuance of hot weather, and that a moderate temperature immediately succeeds the storm. The remarks and observations of the worthy Dr. HALES on this subject seem also to merit peculiar attention. Further, as the rays of the sun, concentrated by a powerful burning

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ing mirror, will produce a fusion of metals, and instantly reduce a number of substances presented to the focus to a *calx*, as the same effect is in many cases produced by a stroke of lightning; and as the colours of the electric and solar light are equally divisible by the prism; may not these also bear some kind of relation to each other<sup>(1)</sup>? Upon the whole, is there not an high degree of probability in the supposition, that light, fire, phlogiston, and electricity, are only different modifications of one and the same principle? See notes 7. 8. and 9. A similarity in several of the phenomena of electricity and magnetism hath been long since pointed out by Dr. PRICE, from M. *ÆPINAS*; and the effect of heat on both admirably displayed by Mr. CANTON. Of all the substances I have yet examined, the most difficult to excite, I observed to be a fine, smooth, unarmed load-stone, and a piece of black lead; these seemed to bid defiance to all my rubbers: at length, however, with a piece of new flannel they were both excited, in a very small degree, negatively. In short, I have not yet met with a single article (on which the experiment could be tried) that I could not, with one or other of my rubbers, make in:

(1) Many other particulars might be adduced in this place; but they are purposely omitted, this paper being already extended far beyond the limits originally intended by the author.

some degree electrical. The laws by which all these fluids are governed, and what constitutes the precise difference between them, may yet, perhaps, by some fortunate philosopher, by a train of just reflexion, and a set of happily contrived and well-conducted experiments, be much farther elucidated. Lastly, I do not speak of these things as facts of which I am absolutely convinced; but earnestly wish to recommend them to the serious consideration of future enquirers. From what hath been said, however, I apprehend it will scarcely be doubted, that electricity, whatever it be (as I have often remarked) is one of the greatest and most important agents in the operations of Nature; that the effects of lightning, therefore, are but as discords in her harmony; and, though singly considered, they may appear unpleasing notes, yet perhaps may be necessary to fill up and compleat her grand and general chorus.

#### NOTES ON THE CONCLUSION.

I. I am just informed by Mr. ADAMS, that Mr. CLARKE, an ingenious gentleman from Ireland, hath lately proved, to the satisfaction of some of the ablest chemists there, that the variety of airs produced by different gentlemen  
in

in their pneumatical researches (that produced from the *calces* of metals perhaps excepted) are only phlogistic vapours arising from, and partaking of, the qualities of the substances from which they are disengaged.

“ The vapour of fermentation is much more subtle than common air, it passes through bodies which would be impenetrable obstacles to the latter.

“ Mr. DE SMETH was not able to retain it by the aid of lutes: a moistened bladder, tied over the mouth of a vessel which contained some fermenting matter, was not at all inflated during the height of fermentation.

“ Dr. PRIESTLEY has observed, that the fixed air from fermenting beer combines easily with the vapour of water, as also with the smoke of rosin, sulphur, and other electrical substances.

“ If it were permitted me to indulge in conjectures, I should say that some experiments induce me to believe, that every elastic fluid results from the combination of some solid or fluid body with the inflammable principle, or perhaps even with the matter of pure fire; and that on this combination the state of elasticity depends.” See HENRY’S translation of M. LAVOISIER’S *Essays*, physical and chemical.

Mr. LANE, in his curious and most important experiment of dissolving iron in water impregnated with fixed

air, observed, that after the water so impregnated had been passed through a close filtering paper, it was rendered quite transparent, the iron being in perfect solution. This clear liquor he endeavoured to preserve in its transparent state, by using every means that then occurred to him to retain the elastic vapour, but without success, for in a few hours the transparency diminished: afterwards the liquor became opaque, and deposited the iron that had been dissolved in it.

2. Several gentlemen have observed, that in working their electrical machines with great velocity, as heat was produced by the friction, the electricity was proportionably lessened.

3. Mr. ERRINGTON, a gentleman who often recreates himself with mechanical operations, frequently observed, that after he had been for some time briskly working his drill, the string of it became strongly electrical.

4. Mr. CAVALLO, who sometimes amuses himself with the violin, having played a few sprightly airs, examined at my request the hairs of the bow, and the strings of the instrument, and found by his electrometer that both of them were electrical; the former in a *plus*, the latter in a *minus* state. In this case, the rosin contributes to



the electricity. Perhaps a tenor or bass-viol might produce the effect in a greater degree.

5. Mr. CAVALLO likewise informs me, that taking two pieces of broken China ware, he struck the edges of them briskly together, and produced sparks of fire, but no electricity. He then rubbed the broader surfaces gently together, and produced a strong electricity; positive in one piece, negative in the other. This experiment I have several times repeated to my entire satisfaction.

6. I have myself observed, that two glass tubes, rubbed briskly together, produce a vivid purple light and strong phosphoreal smell, but no attraction or repulsion; but two pieces of plate glass, each two inches long and one inch broad, warmed and rubbed gently against each other, produce electricity, negative in one piece, positive in the other. Both glass and amber I have also made electrical by blowing upon them (previously warmed) with a pair of bellows.

7. Platina, in the purest state to which it could be reduced by chemistry, and on which Dr. LEWIS informed me that the strongest fires he could raise had no further effect, I have been able to fuse in a small degree, by a strong charge of electricity. *Phil. Trans.* vol. LXIV. p. 416.

8. Since the learned and accurate F. BECCARIA published the account of his curious experiment of revivifying the *calces* of metals by electricity, it hath been repeated with perfect success by several other gentlemen.

9. With respect to earthquakes, upon this hypothesis Dr. STUKELEY's and the rev. Mr. MITCHEL's ingenious theory may both be near to truth, as the difference between them will consist more in words than in facts. See a most curious and astonishing effect of evaporation produced by electricity in Dr. FRANKLIN's Experiments and Observations, first edit. p. 415. Perhaps it may not be improper to mention in this place the following experiment, which I made long since myself. A pretty large wine-glass being nearly filled with water, two wires, terminated by small brass balls, were hung opposite to each other upon the brim of the glass, so as to let the balls descend to about half the depth of the water. The communication being then completed by a chain, a jar containing three square feet of coated surface, was discharged through it. The consequence was, the stem of the glass was broken in two places; the bowl was shivered perhaps into a thousand pieces, and scattered with the water in all directions: part of it flew into my face, and so much upon the apparatus, that I remember it put an end to my experiments for that time. I had neglected to cover the glass, being desirous to see the effect

effect of the charge passing through the water; not suspecting the danger of the electricity evaporating part of it, and exploding with such violence as might have been attended with very disagreeable consequences..

10. That water-spouts are really occasioned by electricity I have long suspected, from several circumstances; but Mr. GEORGE FORSTER, F. R. S. in his curious remarks and circumstantial description of one of these phenomena (*Voyage round the World*, vol. I. p. 191.) seems to have confirmed this matter beyond a doubt: the form of the column, the hail-stones which fell at the time, and the flash of lightning which appeared at the disjunction of the tube, are, I apprehend, as complete proofs as can be given, or as the case can admit or require.

11. Some gentlemen have supposed, that the electric matter is the cause of the cohesion of the particles of bodies. If the electric matter be as I suspect, and my experiments and the foregoing notes seem to prove, a real elementary fire inherent in all bodies, that opinion may probably be well-founded; and perhaps the soldering of metals and the cementation of iron by fire may be considered as strong proofs of the truth of their hypothesis.

12. Dr. PRIESTLEY observes (*Experiments and Observations on Air*, vol. I. p. 280.) That it is probable, that elec-

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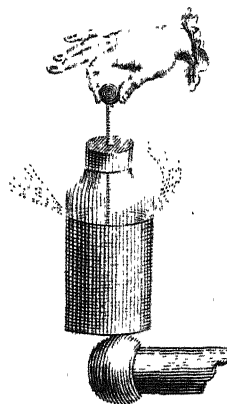
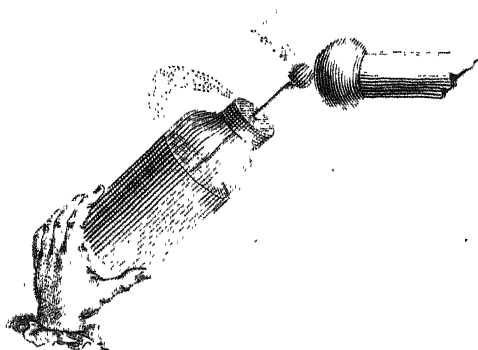
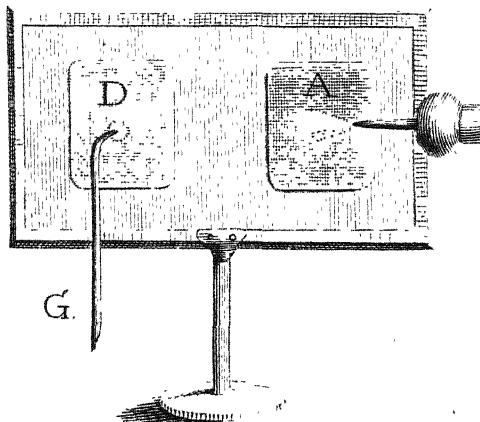
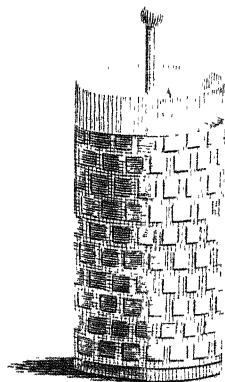
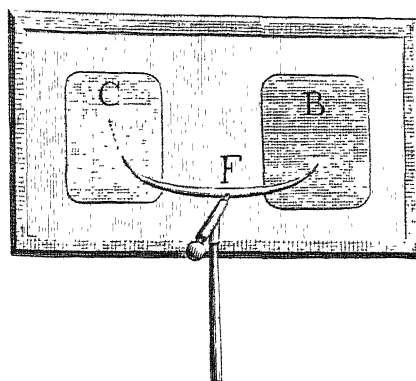
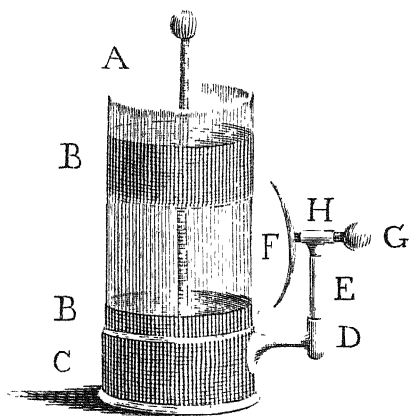
tric light comes from the electric matter itself; that this being a modification of phlogiston, it is probable that *all light* is a modification of phlogiston also; and that, prior to his deductions from electrical phenomena, it was pretty evident that light and phlogiston are the same thing in different forms or states. Dr. PRIESTLEY'S third volume on the same subject was not published till the last sheet of my paper had been composed, and a proof struck off. In the appendix to that volume I find so curious an article in a letter from signor VOLTA to the Doctor, that I shall take the liberty to transcribe a part of it, as a very important addition; *viz.* “ I fire inflammable air  
 “ by the simple electric spark, even when the electricity  
 “ is very moderate, which explains the *ignes fatui*, pro-  
 “ vided they consist of inflammable air issuing from  
 “ marshy ground by the help of the electricity of fogs  
 “ and by falling-stars, which are very probably thought  
 “ to have an electrical origin.

“ I do not know whether you have ever tried the effect  
 “ of the Bolognian phosphorus on air. It phlogisticates it  
 “ in the highest degree, and the diminution it occasions  
 “ takes place very quickly, and is altogether surprising;  
 “ but for this purpose the phosphorus must be good,  
 “ and the weather not too cold.”

Since











Since the preceding papers were presented to the Royal Society, I have seen and heard of such a number of curious remarks, observations, and discoveries on light, fire, phlogiston, and electricity, which tend to illustrate and confirm the opinions I have advanced, that I would beg leave to add, that, had I seen or known of several of those excellent pieces in time, I should certainly have availed myself of such important labours, and have spoken of the subjects above-mentioned with a greater degree of confidence. The authors I allude to are, BOERHAAVE on Fire; STAHL on Phlogiston; Dr. PEMBERTON on Fire; Dr. HIGGINS on Light; the celebrated MACQUER, particularly in his Memoir on Phlogiston, in the abbé ROZIER's Journal for Nov. 1776; a Memoir by Mr. OPOIX on Phlogiston and Light; Mr. ACHARD's Electrical Experiments on the Ice of distilled Water, frozen in a degree of cold exceeding what we ever experience in this country; with plates of which ice he not only performed the Leyden experiment, but even excited it by friction like glass (see the Abbé ROZIER's Journal for Nov. 1776); and lastly, M. KOESTLIN's curious and most valuable experiments on the influence of electricity, in the production and support of animal and vegetable life, particularly his discovery that vegetation was actually retarded by electrifying his seeds negatively



VIII. *Extract of a Letter from John Strange, Esquire, His Majesty's Resident at Venice, to Sir John Pringle, Bart. P. R. S.: with a Letter to Mr. Strange from the Abbé Joseph Toaldo, Professor in the University of Padua, &c. giving an Account of the Tides in the Adriatic.*

S I R,

Venice,  
Nov. 19, 1776.

Read Jan. 23. and Feb. 6.  
1777.

**I**N your last favour you expressed a desire of having some account of the the course of the tides here. As I have hitherto had but little opportunity of making any conclusive observations on that subject, I applied to the Abbé TOALDO, professor of astronomy and meteorology in the university of Padua, as the most likely person to inform me. He obligingly complied with my request by the enclosed letter, which I hope will be acceptable to you, and in some measure satisfactory, being chiefly grounded on the observations of a very accurate man here, signor TEMANZA, a celebrated architect and engineer. It is a pity but those observations had been extended to a longer term; but as no better are to be had at present, we must be contented, and hope for better hereafter. In the mean time it will be a further satisfaction to the learned professor, as well

as to me, SIR, should this communication prove also acceptable to the gentlemen of the Royal Society, to whom you may probably think proper to present it.

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De reciproco Æstu Maris Veneti. Ad Nobilem ac Doctissimum *Joannem Strange*, &c. Epistola *Josephi Toaldi*, &c.

QUÆRENTI tibi, vir præstantissime, notitiam reciproci maris æstûs, in portu atque æstuario Veneto obtinentis, idque nomine Regiæ Societatis vestræ, clarissimique ejus præsidis D. JOHANNIS PRINGLE, baronetti, libentissime, pro modo ac viribus, morem gero. Quî enim negare possem vel tibi, studiorum meorum fautori munifico, rerumque naturalium scrutatori eximio? vel Regiæ Societati, cujus acta cognitionum humanarum rerum gazophylacium, in publicum usum paratum, exhibent? vel illustri ejus præfidi, ob scientiarum amorem, in Europâ totâ tam celebrato? vel ipsi heroicæ nationi Britannicæ, pro rerum maritimarum præstantiâ, notitiam hanc præcipuo jure quasi petenti. Accedit, quod res hæc illustrium autorum falsâ traditione infecta ac turbata est, sicut mox docebo; ut proinde intersit non minus navigationis quam scientiæ, veram ejus historiam

memoriæ ac litteris tradere. Conabor ergo præcipua ac summa rei capita breviter colligere. Ipse quidem, Patavii degens, observationum feriem, quod utinam licuisset, instituere non potui. Sed D. THOMAS TEMANZA, architectus Venetus clari nominis, diaria observationum suarum liberaliter mecum jamdiu communicavit; ac, licet semel in die observaverit, aquarum tamen motus ac leges in æstibus reciprocis satis indicant: et autores alios consului satis idoneos; et ipse identidem, Venetias digressus, adnotare aliqua minime neglexi.

1. Primum igitur, illud etiam vulgo notum, Venetiis, nempe in portu atque æstuario Veneto, singulis diebus, bis aquarum accessum sive fluxum fieri, bisque recessum, sive refluxum; singulis vero mensibus lunaribus accessus fieri majores per aliquot dies circa novam plenamque lunam, quæ Veneti appellant *Punti d' acqua*, quibus tantum, navigia majora in portum compelli possunt, vel ab eo educi.

2. Quod præcipue scire interest in hoc negotio est hora, quâ æstus menstruus ad culmen pervenit, quâque portum pertransire possunt. Dubitare quis posset propter JANI PLANCI, aliorumque fortasse scriptorum auctoritatem. PLANCUS autem in *Specimine reciproci æstus in mari supero*, recuso Romæ A. D. 1760, una cum libro de *conchis minus notis*, haud hæsitanter tradit, æstum

æstum maris sequi cursum potius solis quam Lunæ; id est, aquas in quolibet accessu maxime elatas deprehendi sole meridianum obtinente, maxime vero depressas sole ad horizontem delato. Quid PLANCUM alioſque in errorem induxerit, pronunciare non aſim. Fortaſſe cauſa erroris fuit hæc: æſtus majores contingunt circa novam plenamque Lunam: iſtorum autem acceſſuum hora parum diſtat, ut mox oſtendam, a Lunæ tranſitu per meridianum; qui iis diebus parum item diſtat a tranſitu ipſius ſolis per eundem circulum. Ecce ergo cauſam erroris, quæ certè impoſuit ipſi JANO PLANCO; qui, ut in præſatione libri ſui fatetur, ad portum Ariminenſem, et ad motum aquarum obſervandum, non niſi tempore majorum æſtuum novi-lunii ac plenilunii deſcendere conſueverat; circa quadraturas, æſtus modici ſunt, vixque ſenſibiles, ut proinde ipſorum horam (turbatam etiam ob divulſionem ſolis ac Lunæ) obſervare non tam fit promptum.

3. Quæcumque fuerit errandi cauſa certe errarunt: æſtus enim maris, ut alibi, ita Venetiis, regitur a motu Lunæ. DoCTOR VINCENTIUS MIOTTI, obſervator diligens ac navus, MURIANI, quæ urbs milliari uno circiter a Venetiis diſtat ſeptentrionem verſus, anno 1766 et 67, cum tabulas quaſdam huc pertinentes conficere vellet, per plures menſes æſtus accedentis ac pleni horam exploravit, eamque, in ſummâ, comperit eſſe unam cum di-

midia ante transitum Lunæ per meridianum super vel subter; vel potius decimam cum dimidia post: dico potius post, quia credibile est, aquam, quæ ob æstum in Mediterraneum ex oceano influit, tantum temporis infumere ut ad extremas oras maris Adriatici perveniat. Eandem horam colligo ex observationibus anno 1770 horatu meo habitis a laudato domino TEMANZA (nam in diariis præcedentibus hoc neglexerat): idem ipse, cum Venetiis non semel effem, studiose rem animadvertens atque explorans, verum esse deprehendi.

4. Hora ergo completi portus, quem statum *etablissement du port* appellant Galli, id est æstus altissimi in syzigiiis præcipue, est  $10\frac{1}{12}$  post Lunæ transitum per meridianum, superiorem, aut inferiorem, ita ut postea descendere incipiant. Lunâ vero ad horizontem, five orientalem five occidentalem, accedente, aquæ humiles ac depressæ sunt, ac tum demum crescere incipiunt <sup>(a)</sup>.

Ex.

(a) Hujusmodi aquarum vices in portu Veneto atque æstuario, si autoritate opus sit, traditas deprehendo in veteri codice manuscripto, rationem universam Venetæ navigationis, tunc temporis continente, una cum amplissimo portulano: consulendum olim præbuit serenissimus MARCUS FOSCARENUS, Venetiarum prius historicus, deinde dux, vir dum viveret artium ac doctorum patronus magnificentissimus; scriptus est codex linguâ Venetâ verniculâ, eâque antiquiore. Opinabatur serenissimus dux, fuisse codicem PETRI LAURETANI, strenuissimi ducis maritimi ex nostris, qui anno 1443 extrema nece Januenses apud RAPALLUA debellavit. Is ergo codex inter præcepta navigandi ad rem nostram hæc habet, p. 51. *Le acque di questo porto (di Vinetia) si nè queste: quando la Luna*

Ex hoc igitur scriptore (in adnotatione) habemus vices æstus, cum diurni tum menstrui, in portu Veneto. Quod vero afferit, Lunâ in meridiano existente aquas fieri plenas, latius est fumendum; ut intelligatur circa illam horam, id est cum parvâ differentiâ unius ac dimidiæ horæ, quam superius statuimus.

5. Consequitur, ut dicamus de magnitudine, five altitudine aquarum in æstu. Circa fyzygias crescunt aquæ plerumque tres pedes, vel tres cum dimidio fere, juxta mensuram Venetam (pes autem Venetus ad Londinen-

*«è in Ponente e Levante, sono tutte le acque basse; e quando è in Siroco e Maistro, son mezze piene; e quando la Luna è in Ostro, le acque son tutte piene; e quando la Luna è in Greco e Garbin, le acque son mezze vode.*

*Avvisate, che le acque in fede comenza zorni quattro della Luna infin a zorni 10; e la è a punta; e dai 11 infuso sono acque seconde infina a zorni 19 della Luna; e da zorni 19 infina zorni 25 sono le acque in fede; e dai 25 infina quattro della Luna sono crescenti. Avvisate, che in una Luna sono do fede, e do seconde; e da 7 alli 9 l'acqua no è move, zoe non à pòssò: quæ hanc vim habent.*

“ Regula aquarum in portu Veneto est hæc: cum Luna est in occasu vel ortu, aquæ sunt prorsus humiles; cum respicit plagas intermedias ventorum, id est cum mediam altitudinem ascendendo vel descendendo occupat, aquæ sunt femi-plenæ, vel femi-vacuæ. Denique cum Luna est in austro, vel meridiano, aquæ sunt ubique plenæ.”

Hæc de æstu diurno, quod sequitur pertinet ad æstus menstruos.

“ Admoneo, aquas deficere incipere, vel æstus parvos fieri a quartâ die Lunæ usque ad decimam, ac tum incipiunt crescere; a die undecima usque ad undecimam secundæ sunt, vel plenæ; a decimâ nonâ ad vicefimam quintam rursus deficient, et deinde iterum crescunt usque ad quartam diem Lunæ. Admoneo intra Lunationem esse duas periodos, minorum, totidemque majorum æstuum; a septimâ autem die ad nonam (addendum etiam 22 ad 24); aquas minime moveri.”

sem sese haber ut 1540 ad 1351 $\frac{2}{3}$ ) raro ad quatuor, rarius ad quinque, rarissime aut fere numquam ad sex, austro flante, mari irato ac procelloso.

6. Circa quadraturas elatio aquarum multo minor est, aliquando vix trium pollicum; media, ut postea ostendam, est pedis 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ .

7. Indicata altitudo æstûs, maxima est quæ observetur in toto Adriatico (cumulantur enim aquæ intra Veneta æstuarium): quo enim magis acceditur ad Mediterraneum, minores continuo deprehenduntur æstus, ita ut in Mediterraneo ipso vix animadvertantur, exceptis euripis, aliisve angustis sinibus.

8. Omitto quæ sunt communia æstûs maritimi in omnibus maribus; ex. gr. retardare singulis diebus cum Lunæ transitu per meridianum; ex duobus diurnis æstibus, alterum esse majorem et diuturniorem; æstus maximos circa syzygias fere nunquam contingere ipso die syzygiæ, sed vel antevertere, vel retardare, uno, duobus, tribus, aliquando vel quatuor diebus.

9. Peculiariora quædam adnotabo, ut illud cum JANO PLANCO, aquas, initio accessûs, paulatim ac lenè crescere per tres aut quatuor horas, ut vix tres pollices horis singulis ascendant; postea vehementer insurgere cursu valde citato; tum fieri, in culmine, quoddam quasi *aquistitium*, ut semihorâ quiescere videantur, postea velociter descendere,



descendere, et easdem vices reciprocè subire; unde patet spatium transeundi portûs quatuor horis ad summum in majoribus æstibus circumscribi.

10. Illud præcipue peculiare videtur huic mari nostro, atque Adriatico toti, æstus æquinoctiorum (Lunâ novâ vel plenâ) esse quidem magnos, sed non totius anni maximos; sed maximos contingere circa solstitium hybernum. Sciendum præterea, sinum Venetum pleniorum in genere deprehendi, et aquas altiores esse hyeme, quam æstate: animadverterat hoc JANUS ipse PLANCUS in laudatospecimine. Id ostendo duplici comparatione.

11. D. TEMANZA observationes suas instituit ab anno 1751 ad 1755. Ex hoc quinquennali diario excerpti æstus medios singulorum anni mensium, quos in duas classes tribuo, sex hybernos, sexque æstivos.

Menses hyberni.			Menses æstivi.		
Æstus med. in ped. poll.			Æstus med. in ped. poll.		
Januarius,	2	1,9	Aprilis,	1	9,9
Februarius,	2	0,3	Maius,	1	9,5
Martius,	1	9,7	Junius,	1	11,7
October,	1	10,9	Julius,	1	9,9
November,	2	1,4	Augustus,	1	7,9
December,	2	2,6	September,	1	9,2
Med. diurnus,	2	0,5	Med. diurnus,	1	9,7

Patet

Patet ex hâc tabellâ, 1°, Maximum æstum totius anni, Venetiis, contingere mense Decembri, scilicet circa solstitium hybernum; et huic proximum esse æstum mensis Januarii. 2°, Minimum accidere mense Augusto. 3°, Mediocre[m] esse mensibus æquinoctialibus Martio ac Septembri. 4°, Inter sex menses æstivos, mensem solstitialem Junium afferre præ cæteris æstum magnum, et quidem majorem æquinoctialibus ipsis. 5°, Tandem mensuram æstuum æstivorum valde superari a mensura æstuum hybernorum.

12. D. TEMANZA, in æstu adnotando, respexit ad terminum quendam medium, qui Venetiis ab aquarum architectis appellatur *commune*: intelligunt libellam quandam mediam aquarum in lacunâ. Quoad ergo hanc libellam, sive altitudinem mediam aquarum, adnotavit, quæ mensura æstûs, tam accedendo quam recedendo, fuisset singulis diebus supra vel subter (accidit enim aliquando ut æstus ad eam altitudinem mediam minime pertingat). Contuli ego in summas ex unâ parte dies, quibus fuit supra, ex aliâ, quibus fuit infra; idque pro utrâque mensium classe.

Æstus menſibus hyb.			Æſtus menſibus æſt.		
	Dies ſupra med.	Dies inf. med.		Dies ſupra med.	Dies inf. med.
Januario,	105	51	Aprili,	82	68
Februario,	86	55	Maio,	85	80
Martio,	95	60	Junio,	73	77
Octobri,	86	69	Julio,	64	91
Novembri,	98	52	Auguſto,	63	92
Decembri,	102	53	Septembri,	75	75
Summæ,	<u>572</u>	<u>340</u>		<u>442</u>	<u>483</u>

Etiam ex hâc tabellâ diſcimus, æſtus hybernis menſibus fieri ſæpius elatioreſ, et finum noſtrum pleniorẽ eſſe, quam æſtate.

13. Phænomenon hoc ab aliâ cauſâ repetere neſcio, quam a viciniâ majoreſolis, in fine Decembris ad perigæum delapſi; niſi forte partem aliquam ſibi vindicet incitatio major, eo temporis, in annuo telluris motu; ut aliquid fortaffe concedendum ſit etiam ingenioſæ GALILÆI theoriæ; ut dum aquæ, vi attrahente corporum cœleſtium, attolluntur, patiantur ſimul agitationem aliquam ob inæqualem motum telluris.

14. Porro fex illis mensibus hybernis contingunt etiam procellæ majores, atque inundationes urbis, in viis, foris, ac locis minus eminentibus. Hoc loco quæstionem de majore altitudine aquarum, atque elatâ superficie maris nostri minime movebo. Illam tractarunt abunde CL. MANFREDIUS in *Actis Academiae Bononensis*, tom. II.; JANUS PLANCUS, l. c.; CL. ALBERTUS FORTIS in *Descriptione insulæ CHERSO ATQUE OSERO*. § xvi.; probaruntque, aquas Adriatici reverâ altiores esse hisce annis quam sæculis præcedentibus. Nunc fane sæpius accessus aquarum Venetiis pertingunt ad ea loca, ad quæ nunquam antea perveniebant. Itaque necesse est hodie attollere strata viarum, ac præcipue cisternarum, quæ aquas pluvias excipiunt, ne in magnis æstibus ab aquâ falsâ inficiantur. Nec mirum sit, in lacunâ urbem ambiente, existere tractus non exiguos qui ab æstu fere jam nunquam regantur; solum enim lacunæ elatum est, atque extollitur quotidie (licet magnis ac prorsus regiis sumptibus omnes fluvii a lacunâ jamdiu depulsi fuerint) ob sedimenta aquarum, ac maris alluviones.

Ad æstus quod attinet, ex diario domini TEMANZA, atque ex solutis quibusdam schedis, erui mensuram mediam æstûs, annis hisce, prout in apposita tabellâ.

Æstus medius annorum.

Anni	Æstus medius. ped. poll.	
1751	1 11,82	} 1 11,66
1752	1 10,53	
1753	2 0,35	
1754	1 11,88	
1755	1 11,71	
1760	2 1,11	} 2 1,26
1764	2 3,32	
1765	2 0,57	
1766, Jun.	2 0,16	
1769	2 1,13	

Si quinque posteriorum annorum observationes fideles essent, ut priores (quod tamen ne ipse quidem D. TEMANZA omnino spondet) manifesto evincerent, æstum maris Venetiis, annis hisce proximis, summatim crescere. Quod credibiles reddit observationes ipsas est id, quod modo aiebam, aquas hoc tempore, quâcunque de causâ, insolitos accessus facere, et inundare ea loca quæ nunquam antea attingebant. Satis de hac quæstione.

15. Modo, datâ occasione, non est tacendus cursus quidam generalis aquarum in toto Adriatico, qui est extra controversiam, et cujus cognitio non inutilis esse potest ratione navigationis. Detectus est ergo cursus quidam, seu motus aquæ, qui ingreditur sinum nostrum a dextrâ parte, fitque secundum littora Epiri, Dalmatiæ, atque Histriæ; torquetur per sinum Tergestinum, refluitque radendo oras Forojulienfès, Venetas, Ravennates, reliquas in ditione pontificiâ ac regni Neapolitani, egrediturque a parte sinistrà. Hinc nautæ nostri, cum a Corcyrà atque Ionio, Venetias petunt, legere consueverunt Epiri ac Dalmatiæ littora; cum contra Venetiis Corcyram tendunt, navigare student secundum littora pontificia ac Neapolitana; contenduntque, eodem vento, ac ceteris paribus, hâc viâ multo plus itineris confici, quam secus.

16. Circularem hunc aquarum in Adriatico fluxum detexit primus, ni fallor, inter scriptores GEMINIANUS MONTANARIUS, professor Patavinus, anno 1681, dum jussu publico lacunam visitaret. Rem litteris tradidit, ut videre est in ejus commentario Italico, cui titulus, *Il Mare Adriatico, e sua corrente esaminata*, in *Collezione Autorum. qui de Aquis currentibus scripserunt*, vol. iv. recentis editionis Florentinæ, 1768. Ex progressu corporum aquæ innatantium (puta insularum quarundam ex putrefactis, radicibus arundinum palustrium concretarum, quarum plurimæ:

plurimæ concrefcunt in paludibus Adrianis) arguit MONTANARIUS, curfum hunc aquæ in Adriatico conficere milliaria tria vel quatuor intra horas xxiiii. At JANUS PLANCUS, qui eundem hunc curfum et agnovit et obfervatione confirmavit, ut videre eft libro laudato, putat, ex progrefſu cadaverum fluitantium, quæ aliquando curſu hoc deferuntur ad littora inferiora Ariminenſia, putat, inquam, eſſe adhuc velociorem.

17. Opinatur porro ingenioſe MONTANARIUS, fluxum hunc in Adriatico derivationem eſſe curſûs generalis in Mediterraneo. Teſte enim FOURNERIO in *Hydrographiâ*, oceani aquæ, per fretum Gaditanum, Mediterraneum ingrediuntur a parte dexterâ, vel Africæ; hujus littora radunt uſque ad Ægyptum et Syriam; inde convertuntur per oras Afîæ, fortaffè circumeunt Ægeum, legunt oras Peloponneſi, ingrediuntur in Adriaticum eo modo quo diximus, atque inde exeundo, peragrant littora infera Italîæ, Liguriæ, Galliæ, Hiſpaniæ, ac tandem per fretum Gaditanum, a parte finiſtrâ, in oceanum exonerantur ac revertuntur.

18. Hæc habebam quæ de motu aquarum in finu Veneto proferrem. Non ingratum, opinor, erit accipere concluda quædam ex obſervationibus ad æſtus maritimi theoriam ſimul pertinentia, ac doctrinam NEWTONIANAM mirifice illuſtrantia.

19. Conferre

19. Conferre primum placuit æstus fyzigiarum cum æstibus quadraturarum, eductis numeris mediis æstuum quinque dierum circa singulas, elicitisque mediis mediorum singulis illis quinque annis exactis. Et quia Luna, cum sita est in perigæo, ob viciniam majorem, attollere magis debet aquas, quam in apogæo, hi quoque numeri additi sunt: ecce tabellam.

*Æstus medius ratione situs Lunæ.*

	In Novil.	Pr. Quad	Plenil.	Ult. Quad.	Perigæo.	Apogæo.
1751	2 4,5	1 5,4	2 3,1	1 6,4	2 1,5	1 10,0
1752	2 3,6	1 4,2	2 5,8	1 3,5	1 8,5	1 7,1
1753	2 7,6	1 5,9	2 5,8	1 4,2	2 4,1	2 0,6
1754	2 4,2	1 1,3	2 3,8	1 4,1	2 5,5	2 1,5
1755	2 0,6	1 5,8	2 4,0	1 4,1	2 0,9	1 10,8
Med. 5 ann.	2 4,1	1 4,1	2 4,5	1 4,5	2 1,2	1 10,1

Patet, 1°, æstus fyzigiarum medios valde excedere æstus quadraturarum; ut si numeri utriusque fyzigiæ, et quadraturæ, componantur, æstus medius fyzigiarum fit pollicum 28,3, quadraturarum 16,3, in ratione fere 7 : 4. 2°, Animadverti potest, æstum plenilunii plerumque esse paulo majorem æstu novilunii, ut quodammodo magis videatur retrahi a luminaribus massa globi terrestris,

4

quam



quam aquæ oceani, utroque in situ, in novilunio quidem secundum elationem aquarum; in plenilunio vero luminaribus divulsis, et in opposita trahentibus, contra rifum aquarum. Hinc enim sequitur, æstus plenilunii aliquantulo elatiorem effe debere. Utcumque fit, certe 3<sup>o</sup> æstus Lunæ perigeæ, prout ratio postulat, superat æstus Lunæ apogeæ, in ratione 25,2 ad 22, vel circiter 1 ad 7; quæ est proportio apparentis diametri Lunaris a perigæo in apogæum.

20. Porro juxta theoriâ physicâ, ratione fitûs Lunæ et locorum terrestrium, si cætera sint paria, maximi fieri deberent æstus, spectatâ tellure totâ, cum Luna imminet lineæ æquinoctiali; ratione vero loci peculiaris, aquæ magis attolli debent, cum Luna, declinatione, cognomini. latitudini geographicæ ejusdem loci potitur; minime in oppositâ. Confeci ergo summas æstuum, pro diebus quibus Luna morata est (quinquennio hoc) in singulis zodiaci signis: ex his eductos numeros medios exposui in. adjunctâ tabellâ.



maxima esse debet cum versatur prope æquatorem; deinde in signis descendantibus, prope æquinoctium libræ, collectio quædam cumulusque aquarum fieri debet, ex præcedente impressione, in signis borealibus (ratione climatis nostri) et ob vim inertię in aquis ipsis. Quare æstus circa Virginem ac Libram debent esse generatim maximi, prout sunt in tabulâ.

21. 5°, Adnotavi pro singulis annis locum perigæi Lunarisi; ex quo apparet, perigæum ipsum, motu suo, altiores æstus secum quasi trahere a signo in signum, a Tauro ac Geminis, 1751; ad Cancrum, 1752; ad Leonem, 1753; ad Virginem ac Libram, 1754; ad Scorpionem, 1755. Præterea anno 1753, quo anno perigæum proximum erat vertici nostro, æstum annuum videmus fuisse maximum: omnia juxta theoriam.

22. Similes vices, hortante CL. LAMBERTO, academico Berolinensi, ex observationibus quadraginta annorum CL. POLENI, R. S. S. quæ sunt apud me, deprehendi in motu barometri. Sed de hoc egi in *Specimine* meo *Meteorologico*, et in opusculo, cui titulus *Novæ Tabulæ Barometri*, agamque fortasse alias.

Interim opto, hæc qualescumque notitias meas de æstu maris Veneti, a Societate Regiâ non inutiles judicari. Vale, vir præstantissime, ac favere perge addic-  
tissimo cultori tuo.

Dabam Patavii, 9 calendas Nov. 1776.

X. *A Letter from Mr. Peter Wargentin, F. R. S. Secretary to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, to the Rev. Nevil Maskelyne, B. D. F. R. S. and Astronomer Royal; concerning the Difference of Longitude of the Royal Observatories at Paris and Greenwich, resulting from the Eclipses of Jupiter's first Satellites, observed during the last Ten Years: to which is added, a Comparative Table of the corresponding Observations of the First Satellite, made in the principal Observatories.*

Vir plurimum reverende atque celeberrime,

Read Feb. 6,  
1777.

PETIISTI in utrisque litteris tuis, “ve-  
“lim observationes satellitum Jovis,  
“præcipuè primi, a te GRENOVICI, et a Cl. D. MESSIER  
“PARISIIS, ab anno 1765 habitas, inter se conferre, ut  
“inde eliciatur vera differentia utriusque meridiani:”  
huic desiderio tuo lubens satisfacio.

Tuis observationibus primi satellitis non nisi 17 cor-  
respondentes MESSIERII obtigerunt; quarum 8 fuerunt  
immerfiones

immerfiones, et 9 emerfiones. Ipfas obfervationes, inter fe et cum multis aliis, atque cum poftremâ editione mearum tabularum (eâ fcilicet, quam alteri editioni aftronomiæ fuæ inferuit Cl. DELALANDIUS) comparatas, videas in fubjunctâ appendice, in quâ Paris Cl. indicat obfervationes MESSIERII, in palatio Clugny; Paris O. autem, in ipfo obfervatorio regio habitas. Hîc fufficiat attuliffe refultantes a quovis immerfionum et emerfionum correfpondentium pari, meridianorum differentias.

Ex immerfionibus correfp.

	' "
1765, Dec. 24. prodit diff. merid.	8 35
1769, Apr. 12.	9 31
Apr. 28.	9 58
1772, Jun. 9.	9 59
Jul. 11.	9 23
1774, Sept. 26.	9 49
Oct. 3.	9 26
Oct. 21.	9 47
Media ex imm. merid. differ.	9 39
Med. exclufa prima,	9 42

Ex emerfionibus.

	' "
1767, Apr. 9. differ. merid.	9 49
1768, Mai. 11.	9 29
Jun. 3.	9 33
Jun. 19.	10 16
1769, Mai. 16.	9 26
Jun. 8.	9 45
1770, Aug. 5.	9 11
1773, Oct. 25.	9 23
Nov. 1.	9 39
Media ex emerfionibus,	9 37
Med. exclufa quarta,	9 32

Tu, vir celeberrime, fere femper ufus es telescopio NEWTONIANO 6 pedum: CL. MESSIER plerumque GREGORIANO  $2\frac{1}{2}$  pedum, vel acromatico  $3\frac{1}{2}$  pedum, vel aliis

æqualis fere potentia, quorum neutrum non plusquam centies objectorum diametros amplificat. Æquales ferè inventæ per immerfiones et emerfiones correspondentes meridianorum differentia, fatis indicare videntur, ferme æqualis quoque præstantia fuiffe utriufque obfervatoris instrumenta. Alium et certiozem modum ea comparandi nescio, præcipuè cum tu <sup>(a)</sup> nullibi indicaveris potentiam tui NEWTONIANI: nam longitudo fola ambiguum est argumentum.

Per medium itaque deductum ex 7 paribus immerfionum et 8 emerfionum, invenitur differentia inter meridianum GRENOVICENSEM et obfervatorium CL. MESSIER, 9' 38"; vel feclusis uno immerfionum uno emerfionum pari, utpote quæ nimium a reliquis recedentem, indicant meridianorum differentiam, 9' 37"; adeoque foret inter obfervatorium GRENOVICENSE et regium Parifinum 9' 35", hoc est 19 fecundis major quam hucusque putavimus. Obftupui videns tantam incertitudinem circa veram meridianorum differentiam inter duo præcipua orbis obfervatoria, eaque vicina, in quibus ingens obfervationum numerus, annis

(a) The diameter of the aperture of this telescope is 9.4 inches, as is mentioned in the preface to my Greenwich Observations, from 1765 to 1774, published this year. N. M.

plusquam 100, habitus est. Quid tum de aliis sentien-  
dum? Ab unâ parte vix persuadere mihi possum, tantum  
errorem tamdiu potuisse latere; vel comparatas observa-  
tiones eclipsium Solis, Lunæ, occultationum fixarum, &c.  
tam multum potuisse fallere: ab alterâ, egregius 15 bo-  
narum observationum consensus, haud facile fortuitus,  
fidem quandam mereri videbatur; nisi observationes fa-  
tellitum, ad determinandas accuratè longitudinum dif-  
ferentias, prorsus ineptis judicaveris.

Ad tollendum hoc dubium, consului observationes  
primi satellitis, eodem tempore, in ipsis observatoriis re-  
giis, quarum non nisi duæ sunt immersiones, sed novem  
emergiones.

Immerf.		Emerf.	
	' "		' "
1767, Jan. 12. diff. merid.	9 16	1766, Apr. 11.	9 55
1772, Jul. 11.	9 4	1767, Mart. 22.	9 36
	<hr/>	Apr. 16.	9 32
Medium ex hisce duabus,	9 10	Apr. 30.	9 5
		Mai. 9.	9 47
		Jun. 1.	10 28
		Jun. 3.	9 4
		1769, Jun. 8.	10 13
		1773, Oct. 5.	9 37
			<hr/>
		Medium ex omnibus,	9 42
		exclusis 6 <sup>a</sup> et 8 <sup>a</sup> ,	9 32

Harum longe minor est consensus: si tamen sumatur medium, erit id  $9' 26''$  vel  $9' 21''$ .

Uterius comparavi septem paria immersionum et 4 emerfionum, annis 1761—1764, in utroque observatorio captarum: medium ex prioribus reperi  $9' 26''$ , ex posterioribus  $9' 30''$ . Et ne quid deesset, excussi quoque observationes ante annum 1700 factas; inter quas 12 immersiones correspondentes indicant, per medium, differentiam meridianorum  $9' 57''$ ; sed 7 emerfiones tantummodo  $8' 45''$ : ex hoc utroque medio resultat novum  $9' 21''$ .

Porro tentavi, mediantibus meis observationibus, quorum multæ tuis sunt correspondentes, multæ Parisiensibus, quæsitam stabilire meridianorum differentiam. Ego semper usus sum tubo achromatico DOLLONDIANO 10 pedum, cum oculari, quod objecta 90 amplificat, et valde distincta reddit.



Immerf. correſp.		Emerf.	
	h ' "		h ' "
1765, Dec. 1.	1 12 34	1766, Mart. 5.	1 12 11
(b) 1766, Oct. 10.	1 12 14	1767, Jun. 1.	1 12 7
1768, Apr. 2.	1 13 10	1768, Jun. 12.	1 12 16
1769, Mart. 29.	1 11 47	1769, Mai. 16.	1 11 32
1774, Sept. 12.	1 12 32	Jun. 8.	1 12 19
Oct. 3.	1 12 12	1771, Aug. 17.	1 12 0
1775, Oct. 1.	1 12 59	Sept. 25.	1 12 8
Medium,	1 12 14	1772, Sept. 27.	1 12 14
Sed tua obſervatio, die 10 Oct. 1766,		1773, Oct. 25.	1 12 31
vix recte ſe habere poteſt. Illà		1774, Dec. 29.	1 12 23
neglectâ, manet ex reliquis me-		1775, Feb. 22.	1 12 16
diū,	1 12 32	Dec. 27.	1 12 11
		Medium ex his,	1 12 11

Obſervationes emerſionum ſatis pulchrè conſpirant: medium ex immerſionibus et emerſionibus innuit differentiam meridianorum Grenovicenſis et Stockholmenſis  $1^h 12' 21''$ . Perſuaſus ſum eam  $1^h 12' 20''$  vix eſſe minorem. Per medium ex 8 obſervationibus correſponden-

(b) There was a miſtake of twelve hours in ſetting down this obſervation at Greenwich, by the clock keeping ſidereal time, which made an error of  $1' 49''$  in the reduction to apparent time. The correſt time of immerſion is  $16^h 59' 31''$ , which happens to agree exactly with Mr. WARGENTIN's calculation, and the difference of longitude of Stockholm and Greenwich by this obſervation is  $1^h 12' 14''$  inſtead of  $1^h 10' 25$  ſet down above; and the mean difference from all the ſeven correſponding immerſions is  $1^h 12' 30''$ . See the errata printed with my Obſervations. N. M.

tibus,

tibus, quæ habitæ sunt annis 1761—1764, emergit  $1^h 12' 25''$ .

Quod attinet differentiam meridianorum observatorii Parisiensis et Stockholmenfis, ex 8 immersionibus et 13 emergencebus primi satellitis simul in utroque notatis ante annum 1760, conclusi eam, per medium, esse  $1^h 2' 51''$ . Sed 7 immersiones et 12 emergencebus correspondentes, factæ post annum 1760, eam paulo minorem, scilicet  $2' 47''$ , reddunt. Nihilominus, cum per observationes quarundam eclipsium solarium evincere conati sunt celeberrimi viri, PINGRÉ, DU SEJOURS, et LEXELL, eam paucis secundis esse majorem, non refragabor assumere eam  $1^h 2' 55''$ , quâ subtractâ ab inventâ differentiâ observatorum Grenovicensis et Stockholmenfis  $1^h 12' 21''$ , restat differentia Grenovicensis et Parisiensis  $9' 26''$ .

Omnes itaque hæ disquisitiones testantur, differentiam quæsitam majorem esse  $9' 16''$  quantam hucusque existimavimus; et ni fallor ad  $9' 25''$  proximè accedere; de quâ re tamen totum ad te, vir celeberrime, defero judicium.

Interim hinc apparet, arduum sane esse, præcisas meridianorum differentias, ope observationum satellitum Jovis, determinare. Fixarum occultationes a Lunâ, probè observatæ et excussæ, certiore sine dubio suppeditant methodum.

Valde miror, quare illi, qui bonum telescopium vel tubum habent, eo non semper in observandis satellitibus utantur, sed jam hoc, jam alio, forte minus præstanti. Observationes multum dubias, vel aëris vitio vel aliam ob causam, ne quidem in diarium refero, nam nulla observatio præstat malæ. Quantum malæ observationes, pro bonis venditatae, me confuderint et torserint, dicere non possum.

Quartus, die 8 Februarii hujus anni, eclipsin tantum partialem passus est. Magnum tuæ in me amicitiae signum id interpretabor, si, quovis anno finito, tuas mecum communicare velis observationes satellitum; nam his, etiam senex, delector. Hanc quoque provinciam, examinandi motus satellitum, mihi, quasi tacito consensu, detulisse videntur collegæ astronomi. Ceterum ingruens ætas, nimis occupationes quas secretarii munus injungit, defectus instrumentorum (nam murali nondum instructus sum, quidquid dicat Celeb. LALANDIUS) ut taceam modicas ingenii vires, vetant quo minus aliquid tuâ vel aliorum expectatione dignum præstare possim <sup>(b)</sup>. Frigus hæc hieme in Sueciâ continuum fuit, a 28 Dec. ad 5 Februarii; sed neutiquam, pro ratione climatis, præter

(c) Notwithstanding the author's modesty, the astronomers of Europe know him better, and lament with him that he is not so well provided with capital instruments as he wishes and deserves to be. N. M.

modum, rigidum: plerumque 5 vel 10 gradum thermometri REAUMURIANI. Diebus tantum 26 et 27 Januarii, ad 17 et 18 gradus exasperatum fuit. Minor quoque nivis copia apud nos fuit, quam pro solito. Miror itaque intensitatem frigoris, eodem tempore, apud exteros.

Dab. Stockholmæ, die 19 Mart. 1776.

Observationes primi fatellitis Jovis in præcipuis observatoriis habitæ, inter se et cum tabulis comparatæ.

Ann.	Temp. M. D.	Observationis.			Im.	Calculus.			Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
		h	'	"		h	'	"		
1765.	Sept. 21.	16	53	22	Im.	16	53	15	0 7 —	Stockholm.
	Oct. 23.	13	31	6	—	13	31	30	0 24 +	Tyrnav.
	Dec. 1.	10	40	11	—	10	40	48	0 37 +	Greenwich.
		11	33	25	—	11	33	33	0 8 +	Lund.
		11	50	56	—	11	51	0	0 4 +	Tyrnav.
		11	52	45	—	11	52	59	0 14 +	Stockholm.
	8.	12	31	34	—	12	31	25	0 9 —	Greenw.
	15.	14	22	3	—	14	21	40	0 23 —	Greenw.
		15	31	40	—	15	31	52	0 12 +	Tyrnav.
	17.	10	1	15	—	10	1	26	0 11 +	Stockh.
	22.	16	12	19	—	16	11	47	0 32 —	Greenw.
	24.	10	39	27	—	10	39	19	0 8 —	Greenw.
		10	48	2	—	10	48	37	0 35 +	Paris Cl. d.
		11	49	6	—	11	49	31	0 25 +	Tyrnav.
1766.	Jan. 2.	8	8	44	—	8	9	24	0 40 +	Stockh. d.
	9.	9	40	16	—	9	40	37	0 21 +	Lund.
	16.	11	50	51	—	11	51	17	0 26 +	Stockh.
	23.	13	40	32	—	13	41	28	0 56 +	Upsala d.
	25.	8	8	30	—	8	9	30	1 0 +	Upsala d.

Observationes

Observationes comparatæ primi fatellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.	Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.		h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1766. Jan. 25.		8 10 39	Im.	8 11 10	0 31 +	Stockholm.
Febr. 15.		16 6 31	Em.	16 6 14	0 17 —	Upsala.
24.		12 31 20	—	12 31 48	0 28 +	Stockholm.
Mart. 5.		7 43 55	—	7 44 25	0 30 +	Greenw.
		8 55 4	—	8 54 56	0 8 —	Upsala.
		8 56 6	—	8 56 36	0 30 +	Stockh.
		9 45 36	—	9 45 39	0 3 +	Petersb.
10.		15 20 27	—	15 20 58	0 31 +	Paris. Cl.
		15 20 35	—	15 20 56	0 21 +	Paris. O.
12.		9 49 54	—	9 50 3	0 9 +	Paris. O.
		9 49 56	—	9 50 5	0 9 +	Paris. Cl.
		10 33 12	—	10 33 32	0 20 +	Lund.
		10 50 41	—	10 50 59	0 18 +	Tyrnav.
		10 50 53	—	10 51 18	0 25 +	Upsala.
		10 52 13	—	10 52 58	0 45 +	Stockh.
		11 41 56	—	11 42 1	0 5 +	Petersb.
19.		12 30 15	—	12 30 8	0 7 —	Lund.
		12 47 52	—	12 47 54	0 2 +	Upsal. d.
21.		7 16 36	—	7 16 48	0 12 +	Tyrnav.
26.		13 33 36	—	13 34 13	0 37 +	Greenw.
28.		8 12 33	—	8 12 44	0 11 +	Paris. Cl.
		9 8 56	—	9 8 53	0 3 —	Wien.
Apr. 4.		11 10 7	—	11 10 48	0 41 +	Upsala.
		11 10 21	—	11 10 29	0 8 +	Tyrnav.
		11 12 4	—	11 12 28	0 24 +	Stockh.
11.		11 56 30	—	11 56 59	0 29 +	Greenw.
		12 6 25	—	12 6 15	0 10 —	Paris. O.
		13 2 32	—	13 2 26	0 6 —	Wien.
20.		8 31 18	—	8 31 49	0 31 +	Paris. Cl.
		8 31 37	—	8 31 47	0 10 +	Paris. O.
		9 27 56	—	9 27 58	0 2 +	Wien.
		9 32 30	—	9 32 43	0 13 +	Tyrnav.
				Z 2	Observationes	

## Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Anni.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.		h ' "		h ' "		' "	
1766. Apr. 20.		9 34 24	Em.	9 34 42		0 18 +	Stockholm.
		10 23 9	-	10 23 45		0 36 +	Peterfb.
27.		11 30 20	-	11 30 42		0 22 +	Stockh.
May 13.		9 47 45	-	9 48 2		0 17 +	Tyrnav.
		9 49 24	-	9 50 1		0 37 +	Stockholm.
20.		11 25 12	-	11 25 4		0 8 —	Lund.
Jun. 5.		9 54 1	-	9 53 44		0 17 —	Wien.
		9 58 39	-	9 58 29		0 10 —	Tyrnav.
Oct. 10. (d)		17 1 20	Im.	16 59 31		1 49 —	Greenw.
		18 11 45	-	18 11 42		0 3 —	Stockh.
26.		16 27 59	-	16 28 13		0 14 +	Tyrnav.
Nov. 2.		17 21 9	-	17 21 18		0 9 +	Paris. Cl.
		18 22 20	-	18 22 12		0 8 —	Tyrnav.
		18 24 19	-	18 24 11		0 8 —	Stockholm.
18.		16 36 1	-	16 35 51		0 10 —	Tyrnav.
25.		18 9 27	-	18 10 1		0 34 +	Lund. d.
		18 29 37	-	18 29 27		0 10 —	Stockh.
Dec. 4.		13 44 46	-	13 45 9		0 23 +	Paris. O.
		13 44 53	-	13 45 11		0 18 +	Paris. Cl.
18.		17 25 29	-	17 25 29		0 0	Paris. O.
1767. Jan. 3.		15 24 1	-	15 23 57		0 4 —	Greenw.
12.		11 41 41	-	11 42 15		0 34 +	Greenw.
		11 50 57	-	11 51 31		0 34 +	Paris. O.
26.		15 34 34	-	15 34 40		0 6 +	Paris. Cl.
Feb. 2.		17 26 54	-	17 27 20		0 26 +	Paris. Obs.
		17 27 13	-	17 27 22		0 9 +	Paris. Cl.
13.		9 18 13	-	9 18 44		0 31 +	Tyrnav.
20.		11 14 44	-	11 15 14		0 30 +	Stockholm.
27.		11 57 7	-	11 58 6		0 59 +	Greenw. d.
Mart. 17.		8 12 16	Em.	8 11 32		0 44 —	Tyrnav.
22.		14 28 48	-	14 28 40		0 8 —	Greenw.

(d) This observation rightly reduced to apparent time is 16<sup>h</sup> 59' 31'', which happens to agree exactly with Mr. WARGENTIN's calculation. N. M.

Observationes

Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
	M. D.	' "		' "		' "	
1767,	Mar. 22.	14 38 24	Em.	14 37 56	o 28 —	Paris. O.	
	31.	12 4 36	—	12 5 2	o 24 +	Upsala.	
		12 4 54	—	12 4 41	o 13 —	Tyrnav.	
		12 6 28	—	12 6 40	o 12 +	Stockh.	
	Apr. 7.	14 1 46	—	14 1 35	o 11 —	Upsala.	
		14 2 59	—	14 3 15	o 16 +	Stockh.	
	9.	7 20 1	—	7 20 13	o 12 +	Greenw.	
		7 29 50	—	7 29 31	o 19 —	Paris. Cl.	
	14.	14 47 52	—	14 47 36	o 16 —	Greenw.	
	16.	9 16 13	—	9 16 43	o 30 +	Greenw.	
		9 25 45	—	9 25 59	o 14 +	Paris. O.	
	23.	12 23 22	—	12 23 10	o 12 —	Tyrnav.	
		12 23 42	—	12 23 29	o 13 —	Upsala.	
		12 24 30	—	12 25 9	o 39 +	Stockh.	
	30.	13 9 10	—	13 8 47	o 23 —	Greenw.	
		13 18 15	—	13 18 3	o 12 —	Paris. O.	
	Mai. 9.	9 32 26	—	9 32 58	o 32 +	Greenw.	
		9 42 13	—	9 42 14	o 1 +	Paris. O.	
		10 43 7	—	10 43 10	o 3 +	Tyrnav.	
	16.	12 38 6	—	12 37 54	o 12 —	Tyrnav.	
	30.	10 15 32	—	10 15 17	o 15 —	Philadelphia.	
	Jun. 1.	9 44 1	—	9 44 20	o 19 +	Greenw.	
		9 54 29	—	9 53 36	o 53 —	Paris. O. d.	
		10 56 8	—	10 56 31	o 23 +	Stockh.	
	8.	11 37 42	—	11 37 49	o 7 +	Greenw.	
		11 46 46	—	11 47 5	o 19 +	Paris. O.	
	Nov. 21.	19 10 24	Im.	19 10 35	o 11 +	Lund.	
	Dec. 23.	14 43 47	—	14 43 45	o 2 —	Paris. Cl.	
	30.	16 24 27	—	16 24 16	o 11 —	Greenw.	
1768.	Jan. 22.	16 24 13	—	16 23 37	o 36 —	Greenw.	
	31.	12 53 11	—	12 52 56	o 15 —	Paris. O.	
		12 53 22	—	12 52 58	o 24 —	Paris. Cl.	

## Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp. Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc. Observatorium.		
M. D.	h	'	''	h	'	''	
1768. Feb. 14.	16	39	50	Im.	16	39 28	0 22 — Paris. Cl.
	17	42	37	—	17	42 21	0 16 — Stockh.
16.	12	8	37	—	12	9 14	0 37 + Upsala.
	12	8	54	—	12	8 55	0 1 + Tyrnav.
	12	11	9	—	12	10 54	0 15 — Stockh.
	12	59	24	—	12	59 57	0 33 + Petersburg.
Mart. 1.	9	46	49	—	9	47 26	0 37 + Philadelphia.
	14	57	57	—	14	57 21	0 36 — Paris. Cl.
	15	58	20	—	15	58 15	0 5 — Tyrnav.
3.	10	26	59	—	10	27 4	0 5 + Tyrnav.
8.	17	54	32	—	17	54 10	0 22 — Upsala.
10.	11	22	15	—	11	21 56	0 19 — Paris. Cl.
	12	22	40	—	12	22 50	0 10 + Tyrnav.
	13	13	25	—	13	13 52	0 27 + Petersburg.
17.	13	32	17	—	13	32 47	0 30 + Geneve.
19.	9	39	0	—	9	38 56	0 4 — Petersburg.
24.	15	29	3	—	15	29 3	0 0 Geneve.
26.	9	43	3	—	9	43 16	0 13 + Paris. O.
	9	58	1	—	9	58 6	0 5 + Geneve.
	10	43	56	—	10	44 12	0 16 + Tyrnav.
	11	34	52	—	11	35 14	0 22 + Petersburg.
Apr. 2.	11	29	33	—	11	30 25	0 52 + Greenw. d.
	12	42	43	—	12	42 36	0 7 — Stockh.
18.	12	1	37	Em.	12	1 14	0 23 — Greenw.
25.	8	56	50	—	8	56 33	0 17 — Philadelphia.
	13	57	19	—	13	57 10	0 9 — Greenw.
27.	8	35	11	—	8	35 26	0 15 + Paris. Cl.
Mai. 4.	10	31	0	—	10	30 56	0 4 — Paris. Cl.
	11	32	18	—	11	31 50	0 28 — Tyrnav.
	11	33	22	—	11	33 49	0 27 + Stockh.
11.	12	16	46	—	12	16 46	0 0 Greenw.
	12	26	15	—	12	26 4	0 11 — Paris. Cl.



Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.	Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
	M D.	h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1768.	Mai. 20.	8 49 54	-	8 49 29	0 25 -	Paris. Cl.
		9 52 6	-	9 52 22	0 16 +	Stockh.
	27.	10 43 14	-	10 43 44	0 30 +	Paris. Cl.
	Jun. 3.	12 28 6	-	12 28 19	0 13 +	Greenw.
		12 37 39	-	12 37 37	0 2 -	Paris. Cl.
	12.	8 50 16	-	8 50 18	0 2 +	Greenw.
		10 0 23	-	10 0 49	0 26 +	Upsala.
		10 2 32	-	10 2 29	0 3 -	Stockh.
	19.	10 43 27	-	10 43 38	0 11 +	Greenw.
		10 53 43	-	10 52 56	0 47 -	Paris. Cl. d.
	Jul. 5.	9 8 5	-	9 8 13	0 8 +	Paris. Cl.
1769.	Jan. 17.	18 37 12	Im.	18 37 6	0 6 -	Stockh.
	Feb. 2.	16 46 30	-	16 46 19	0 11 -	Tyrnav.
	16.	14 21 10	-	14 20 57	0 13 -	Norriton.
		14 21 51	-	14 21 49	0 2 -	Philadelphia.
	23.	16 15 1	-	16 14 59	0 2 -	Norriton.
		16 16 21	-	16 15 51	0 30 -	Philadelphia.
	Mart. 20.	16 9 9	-	16 9 3	0 6 -	Paris. Cl.
	29.	12 25 7	-	12 24 22	0 45 -	Greenw.
		13 34 34	-	13 34 34	0 0	Tyrnav.
		13 36 54	-	13 36 33	0 21 -	Stockh.
	Apr. 3.	14 49 25	-	14 49 49	0 24 +	Norriton.
		14 50 48	-	14 50 41	0 7 -	Philadelphia.
	5.	15 13 35	-	15 13 1	0 34 -	Lund.
		15 32 30	-	15 32 27	0 3 -	Stockh.
	10.	16 46 0	-	16 45 41	0 19 -	Norriton.
	12.	11 14 37	-	11 14 40	0 3 +	Norriton.
		11 15 49	-	11 15 32	0 17 -	Philadelphia.
		16 16 8	-	16 16 9	0 1 +	Greenw.
		16 25 39	-	16 25 27	0 12 -	Paris. Cl.
	21.	12 50 14	-	12 50 1	0 13 -	Paris. Cl.
		13 52 41	-	13 52 54	0 13 +	Stockh. d.

## Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis		Calculus.	Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
	M. D.	h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1769.	Apr. 28.	14 35 17	-	14 36 7	0 50 +	Greenw.
		14 45 15	-	14 45 25	0 10 +	Paris. Cl.
	30.	9 13 42	-	9 14 16	0 34 +	Paris. O.
		10 16 38	-	10 17 9	0 31 +	Stockh.
	Mai. 5.	11 29 27	-	11 29 43	0 16 +	Norriton.
		11 30 28	-	11 30 35	0 7 +	Philadelphia.
	12.	10 37 6	Em.	10 35 37	1 29 -	Otaheite. d.
	16.	9 31 35	-	9 30 54	0 41 -	Greenw.
		9 41 1	-	9 40 12	0 49 -	Paris. Cl. d.
		10 43 7	-	10 43 5	0 2 -	Stockh.
	21.	11 55 13	-	11 55 5	0 8 -	Norriton.
	23.	11 34 52	-	11 34 28	0 24 -	Paris. Cl.
		12 37 42	-	12 37 21	0 21 -	Stockh.
	28.	11 31 59	-	11 31 53	0 6 -	S. Joseph.
	Jun. 4.	10 45 31	-	10 46 31	1 0 +	Otaheite.
	6.	7 53 58	-	7 54 8	0 10 +	S. Joseph.
		10 11 32	-	10 11 27	0 5 -	Norriton.
	8.	9 40 56	-	9 41 20	0 24 +	Greenw.
		9 50 41	-	9 50 38	0 3 -	Paris. Cl.
		9 51 9	-	9 50 36	0 33 -	Paris. O.
		10 51 45	-	10 51 51	0 6 +	Upsala.
		10 53 15	-	10 53 31	0 16 +	Stockh.
	13.	7 8 16	-	7 8 28	0 12 +	Otaheite.
		12 5 1	-	12 5 1	0 0	Norriton.
	15.	11 35 33	-	11 34 53	0 40 -	Greenw.
	18.	14 33 36	-	14 33 37	0 1 +	Otaheite.
	20.	9 1 43	-	9 1 57	0 14 +	Otaheite.
		11 40 56	-	11 41 11	0 15 +	Norriton.
	22.	8 27 35	-	8 27 51	0 16 +	Philadelphia.
	24.	9 6 41	-	9 7 3	0 22 +	Tyrnav.
	27.	10 56 15	-	10 55 39	0 36 -	Otaheite.
	29.	8 2 52	-	8 3 14	0 22 +	S. Joseph.

Observationes comparatæ primi fatellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp. Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc. Observatorium.
M. D.	h ' "		h ' "		' "
1769. June 29.	10 21 55	Em.	10 21 25	0 30 —	Philadelph.
Jul. 1.	9 50 24	—	9 50 31	0 7 +	Greenwich.
"	11 0 59	—	11 0 43	0 16 —	Tyrnav.
6.	7 18 16	—	7 17 56	0 20 —	Otaheite.
13.	11 51 49	—	11 51 24	0 25 —	S. Joseph.
24.	10 12 28	—	10 11 41	0 47 —	Paris. Cl.
Aug. 23.	7 15 48	—	7 15 14	0 34 —	Philadelph.
1770. Jan. 29.	17 52 18	Im.	17 52 29	0 11 +	Tyrnav.
Mart. 16.	17 2 47	—	17 2 16	0 31 —	Greenwich.
25.	14 37 14	—	14 36 33	0 41 —	Tyrnav.
Mai. 3.	13 9 36	—	13 9 33	0 3 —	Tyrnav.
10.	14 45 45	—	14 46 20	0 35 +	Lund.
	15 5 43	—	15 5 46	0 3 +	Stockholm.
26.	13 2 18	—	13 3 9	0 51 +	Berlin.
Jun. 4.	9 40 27	—	9 41 18	0 51 +	Tyrnav.
11.	12 35 22	Em.	12 34 27	0 55 —	Greenwich.
20.	10 8 30	—	10 8 6	0 24 —	Stockholm.
Jul. 13.	9 5 7	—	9 5 19	0 12 +	Greenwich.
	9 6 24	—	9 5 38	0 46 —	Chislehurst.
	9 59 15	—	9 59 1	0 14 —	Berlin.
29.	8 34 19	—	8 34 13	0 6 —	Tyrnav.
Aug. 5.	9 19 41	—	9 19 57	0 16 +	Greenwich.
	9 20 42	—	9 20 16	0 26 —	Chislehurst.
	9 28 52	—	9 29 12	0 20 +	Paris. Cl.
	10 13 31	—	10 13 34	0 3 +	Berlin.
	10 30 25	—	10 30 6	0 19 —	Tyrnav.
21.	8 52 49	—	8 52 47	0 2 —	Tyrnav.
Sept. 13.	8 15 14	—	8 14 46	0 28 +	Paris. Cl.
1771. Mart. 28.	16 45 22	Im.	16 45 6	0 16 —	Paris. Cl.
Apr. 13.	15 4 21	—	15 4 16	0 5 —	Paris. Cl.
Mai. 22.	13 46 13	—	13 46 28	0 15 +	Geneve.
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Ann.	Temp. Observationis.			Calculus.			Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.	h	'	"	h	'	"	'	"
1771. Mai. 22.	14	32	20	Im.	14	32	25	0 5 + Tyrnav.
Jun. 7.	11	44	57	-	11	44	53	0 4 — Paris. Cl.
	11	59	43	-	11	59	50	0 7 + Genève.
14.	13	52	20	-	13	52	14	0 6 — Geneve.
	14	22	4	-	14	21	39	0 25 — Berlin.
Jul. 23.	14	5	38	Em.	14	4	58	0 40 — Greenwich.
25.	9	44	15	-	9	43	51	0 24 — Tyrnav.
Aug. 1.	10	37	38	-	10	38	1	0 23 + Paris Cl.
10.	8	3	49	-	8	3	38	0 11 — Tyrnav.
17.	8	49	47	-	8	49	53	0 6 + Greenw.
	8	51	0	-	8	50	12	0 48 — Chislehurst.
	9	14	12	-	9	14	8	0 4 — Geneve.
	10	1	47	-	10	2	4	0 17 + Stock.
Sept. 2.	8	23	55	-	8	24	2	0 7 + Tyrnav.
	8	26	14	-	8	26	1	0 13 — Stockholm.
9.	9	11	56	-	9	11	44	0 12 — Greenw.
	9	12	18	-	9	12	3	0 15 — Chislehurst.
25.	7	37	43	-	7	37	24	0 19 — Greenw.
	8	49	51	-	8	49	35	0 16 — Stockh.
Oct. 2.	9	35	40	-	9	35	26	0 14 — Greenw.
	9	35	56	-	9	35	45	0 11 — Chisleh.
11.	6	2	33	-	6	2	39	0 6 + Greenw.
	6	3	16	-	6	2	58	0 18 — Chisleh.
	7	13	21	-	7	12	47	0 34 — Tyrnav.
Nov. 3.	7	32	32	-	7	32	12	0 20 — Tyrnav.
19.	5	52	27	-	5	52	34	0 7 + Stockh.
1772. Mai. 12.	15	11	30	Im.	15	12	1	0 31 + Pekin.
Jun. 9. *	14	57	33	-	14	57	14	0 19 — Greenw.
	15	7	32	-	15	6	32	1 0 — Paris. Cl.
	15	28	20	-	15	27	55	0 25 — Perinaldo.
25.	13	9	17	-	13	18	43	0 34 — Paris. O.

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*Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.*

Ann.	Temp. Observationis.			Calculus.			Diff. Calc. Observatorum.
M. D.	'	"		'	"	'	"
1772. Jun. 25.	13	40	9	Im.	13	40	8
	14	20	1	—	14	19	39
27.	15	22	54	—	15	23	10
Jul. 2.	15	32	31	—	15	32	27
11.	11	22	34	—	11	22	33
	11	22	34	—	11	22	52
	11	31	38	—	11	31	49
	11	31	57	—	11	31	51
	12	32	25	—	12	32	45
18.	13	25	10	—	13	25	4
	14	25	41	—	14	25	59
27.	9	38	2	—	9	38	25
	9	47	28	—	9	47	24
	11	39	6	—	11	39	20
Aug. 3.	11	32	48	—	11	33	2
	13	33	40	—	13	33	57
10.	13	36	46	—	13	37	10
	13	37	11	—	13	37	12
	15	28	26	—	15	29	8
21.	14	23	21	Em.	14	22	41
26.	14	4	22	—	14	4	18
28.	9	26	55	—	9	27	20
	9	44	5	—	9	43	52
30.	10	48	44	—	10	48	31
Sept. 4.	11	23	38	—	11	23	26
	11	23	50	—	11	24	21
	11	41	11	—	11	40	53
8.	7	15	19	—	7	14	59
13.	8	9	44	—	8	9	38
15.	9	12	7	—	9	12	29
20.	9	47	54	—	9	47	49

## Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Anni.	Temp. Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.	h ' "		h ' "		' "	
1772. Sept. 20.	10 6 56	Em.	10 7 16		0 20 +	Stockh.
22.	11 9 47	-	11 10 6		0 19 +	Pekin.
27.	10 52 31	-	10 52 47		0 16 +	Greenw.
	12 2 52	-	12 3 18		0 26 +	Upsala.
	12 4 45	-	12 4 58		0 13 +	Stockh.
Oct. 4.	12 50 41	-	12 50 41		0 0	Chislehurst.
6.	7 28 53	-	7 29 6		0 13 +	Paris. O.
	8 13 17	-	8 13 30		0 13 +	Berlin.
	8 30 12	-	8 30 2		0 10 -	Tyrnav.
13.	9 16 49	-	9 17 13		0 24 +	Greenw.
	9 17 13	-	9 17 32		0 19 +	Chislehurst.
	10 9 40	-	10 9 58		0 18 +	Lund.
	10 10 13	-	10 10 53		0 40 +	Berlin.
	10 27 31	-	10 27 25		0 6 -	Tyrnav.
17.	6 1 36	-	6 1 26		0 10 -	Pekin.
20.	11 13 59	-	11 14 11		0 12 +	Greenw.
	11 14 32	-	11 14 30		0 2 -	Chislehurst.
22.	6 36 57	-	6 36 59		0 2 +	Berlin.
	6 53 28	-	6 53 31		0 3 +	Tyrnav.
24.	7 58 20	-	7 58 10		0 10 -	Pekin.
29.	8 50 14	-	8 49 55		0 19 +	Tyrnav.
31.	9 54 21	-	9 54 25		0 4 +	Pekin.
Nov. 9.	6 19 6	-	6 18 51		0 15 -	Pekin.
14.	5 59 28	-	5 59 23		0 5 -	Greenw.
16.	8 13 54	-	8 13 37		0 17 -	Pekin.
Dec. 2.	6 29 46	-	6 29 41		0 5 -	Pekin.
9.	8 23 12	-	8 22 37		0 35 -	Pekin.
23.	5 15 3	-	5 14 39		0 24 -	Lund.
	5 15 51	-	5 15 34		0 17 -	Berlin.
25.	6 36 12	-	6 35 36		0 36 -	Pekin.
1773. Mai. 29.	15 18 46	Im.	15 18 4		0 42 -	Perinaldo. d.

Observationes

*Observationes comparatæ primi fatellitis Jovis.*

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.	
M.	D.	h	'	"	h	'	"	
1773.	Jun. 14.	14	10	37	Im.	14	10 45	o 8 + Tyrnav.
	16.	15	14	17	-	15	14 13	o 4 — Pekin.
	21.	15	16	43	-	15	16 58	o 15 + Geneve.
	Jul. 7.	13	35	59	-	13	36 23	o 24 + Perinaldo. d.
	14.	15	28	55	-	15	28 45	o 10 — Perinaldo.
	16.	11	27	8	-	11	27 40	o 32 + Petersburg.
	23.	11	19	22	-	11	19 42	o 20 + Greenw.
		11	50	22	-	11	50 17	o 5 — Perinaldo.
	30.	13	44	28	-	13	44 6	o 22 — Perinaldo.
		15	14	40	-	15	14 45	o 5 + Petersburg.
	Aug. 6.	15	17	30	-	15	17 13	o 17 — Paris. Cl.
		15	17	36	-	15	17 11	o 25 — Paris. O.
		15	32	20	-	15	32 10	o 10 — Geneve.
	8.	10	0	42	-	10	0 53	o 11 + Geneve.
		10	7	15	-	10	7 13	o 2 — Perinaldo.
		10	48	41	-	10	48 49	o 8 + Stockholm.
		11	37	37	-	11	37 52	o 15 + Petersb.
	15.	11	41	5	-	11	40 47	o 18 — Paris. Cl.
		11	55	58	-	11	55 44	o 14 — Geneve.
		12	41	23	-	12	41 41	o 18 + Tyrnav.
		13	32	58	-	13	32 43	o 15 — Petersburg.
	22.	13	26	14	-	13	27 3	o 49 + Greenw. d.
		15	28	20	-	15	28 17	o 3 — Petersb.
	24.	9	8	24	-	9	8 18	o 6 — Stockholm.
		15	41	22	-	15	41 46	o 24 + Pekin.
	26.	10	10	31	-	10	10 40	o 9 + Pekin.
	29.	15	32	41	-	15	32 25	o 16 — Paris. Cl.
		15	47	40	-	15	47 22	o 18 — Geneve.
		15	53	49	-	15	53 42	o 7 — Perinaldo.
	31.	9	51	57	-	9	52 12	o 15 + Greenw.
		10	22	16	-	10	22 47	o 31 + Perinaldo.

Observationes.

*Observationes*

## Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp. Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc. Observatorium.
M. D.	h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1773. Aug. 31.	11 2 7	Im.	11 2 24	0 17 +	Tyrnav.
Sept. 7.	12 18 35	-	12 19 11	0 36 +	Perinaldo.
9.	14 2 56	-	14 3 27	0 31 +	Pekin.
14.	14 9 8	-	14 9 36	0 28 +	Geneve.
	15 46 14	-	15 46 35	0 21 +	Petersburg.
16.	9 27 0	-	9 27 8	0 8 +	Stockholm.
25.	12 26 7	-	12 26 27	0 20 +	Pekin.
27.	9 6 28	Em.	9 6 30	0 2 +	Pekin.
Oct. 2.	9 58 55	-	9 58 41	0 14 -	Tyrnav.
	10 49 49	-	10 49 43	0 6 -	Petersburg.
	16 33 55	-	16 34 8	0 13 +	Pekin.
9.	10 44 40	-	10 45 13	0 33 +	Greenw.
	12 46 30	-	12 46 27	0 3 -	Petersburg.
11.	7 15 30	-	7 15 36	0 6 +	Petersb.
	12 59 19	-	13 0 1	0 42 +	Pekin.
13.	7 28 57	-	7 29 12	0 15 +	Pekin.
16.	12 50 34	-	12 51 2	0 28 +	Paris. Cl.
	13 12 37	-	13 12 19	0 18 -	Perinaldo.
18.	7 19 48	-	7 20 5	0 17 +	Paris. Cl.
	7 41 33	-	7 41 22	0 11 -	Perinaldo.
	8 20 52	-	8 20 59	0 7 +	Tyrnav.
20.	9 25 6	-	9 25 33	0 27 +	Pekin.
25.	9 6 12	-	9 6 50	0 38 +	Greenw.
	9 15 35	-	9 16 8	0 33 +	Paris. Cl.
	9 15 49	-	9 16 6	0 17 +	Paris. O.
	9 37 1	-	9 37 31	0 30 +	Perinaldo.
	10 17 19	-	10 17 21	0 2 +	Upfala.
	10 18 43	-	10 19 1	0 18 +	Stockholm.
27.	11 20 54	-	11 21 27	0 33 +	Pekin.
29.	5 49 54	-	5 50 20	0 26 +	Pekin.
Nov. 1.	11 2 10	-	11 2 25	0 15 +	Greenw.

Observationes



*Observationes comparatæ primi fatellitis Jovis.*

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.	Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.		h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1773. Nov.	1.	11 11 49	Em.	11 11 43	0 6 —	Paris. Cl.
		11 33 24	—	11 33 0	0 24 —	Perinaldo.
	3.	6 23 58	—	6 23 58	0 0	Lund.
	26.	6 12 30	—	6 13 3	0 33 +	Perinaldo.
		6 35 2	—	6 35 13	0 11 +	Lund.
		6 52 57	—	6 52 59	0 2 +	Upsala.
		6 54 45	—	6 54 39	0 6 —	Stockh.
		7 44 4	—	7 43 42	0 22 —	Petersburg.
Dec.	3.	8 46 25	—	8 46 5	0 20 —	Upsala.
		8 47 58	—	8 47 45	0 13 —	Stockh.
	10.	9 27 59	—	9 28 15	0 16 +	Greenw.
	19.	6 59 15	—	6 59 11	0 4 —	Tyrnav.
1774. Jan.	2.	9 42 59	—	9 42 55	0 4 —	Paris. Cl.
	4.	5 12 7	—	5 12 4	0 3 —	Tyrnav.
	11.	6 4 24	—	6 4 10	0 14 —	Paris. Cl.
		7 7 2	—	7 7 3	0 1 +	Stockh.
	18.	7 48 22	—	7 48 20	0 2 —	Greenw.
Feb.	3.	6 15 33	—	6 15 8	0 25 —	Paris. Cl.
		7 16 17	—	7 16 21	0 4 +	Upsala.
		7 18 10	—	7 18 1	0 9 —	Stockh.
	19.	5 38 58	—	5 38 41	0 17 —	Stockh.
	26.	6 23 29	—	6 23 14	0 15 —	Greenw.
Aug.	4.	12 32 38	Im.	12 32 16	0 22 —	Tyrnav.
		12 32 51	—	12 32 35	0 16 —	Upsala.
		12 34 42	—	12 34 15	0 27 —	Stockh.
		13 23 17	—	13 23 18	0 1 +	Petersburg.
	18.	15 21 15	—	15 21 3	0 12 —	Paris. Cl.
	20.	10 51 10	—	10 51 6	0 4 —	Upsala.
		10 53 9	—	10 52 46	0 23 —	Stockh.
	27.	12 46 32	—	12 46 44	0 12 +	Upsala.
Sept.	3.	14 25 0	—	14 24 48	0 12 —	Lund.

## Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp. Observationis		Calculus.	Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.	h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1774. Sept. 3.	14 42 21	Im.	14 42 15	0 6 —	Tyrnav.
	15 33 29	—	15 33 17	0 12 —	Peterfburg.
10.	15 28 31	—	15 28 7	0 24 —	Greenw.
	16 38 28	—	16 38 19	0 9 —	Tyrnav.
12.	9 57 14	—	9 57 13	0 1 —	Greenw.
	11 9 46	—	11 9 24	0 22 —	Stockh.
	11 58 36	—	11 58 27	0 9 —	Peterfb.
21.	8 23 43	—	8 23 43	0 0	Peterfb.
26.	13 49 53	—	13 49 40	0 13 —	Greenw.
	13 59 42	—	13 58 58	0 44 —	Paris. Cl.
Oct. 3.	15 46 19	—	15 45 47	0 32 —	Greenw.
	15 55 45	—	15 55 5	0 40 —	Paris. Cl.
	16 58 31	—	16 57 58	0 33 —	Stockh.
5.	10 24 45	—	10 24 8	0 37 —	Paris. Cl.
	11 25 9	—	11 25 2	0 7 —	Tyrnav.
	11 26 59	—	11 27 1	0 2 +	Stockh. d.
	12 16 5	—	12 16 4	0 1 —	Peterfb.
10.	17 41 57	—	17 41 43	0 14 —	Greenw.
12.	12 20 25	—	12 20 0	0 25 —	Paris. Cl.
14.	7 50 7	—	7 50 6	0 1 —	Upsala.
	7 52 0	—	7 51 46	0 14 —	Stockh.
19.	14 16 20	—	14 15 32	0 48 —	Paris. Cl.
21.	8 35 0	—	8 35 3	0 3 +	Greenw.
	8 44 47	—	8 44 21	0 26 —	Paris. Cl.
26.	16 1 23	—	16 1 26	0 3 +	Greenw.
30.	6 10 47	—	6 10 59	0 12 +	Stockh.
Nov. 11.	17 19 3	Em.	17 18 53	0 10 —	Lund.
13.	12 5 2	—	12 4 39	0 23 —	Tyrnav.
15.	6 15 39	—	6 15 36	0 3 —	Lund.
	6 34 34	—	6 35 2	0 28 +	Stockh.
20.	12 56 42	—	12 57 3	0 21 +	Paris. Cl.

Observationes

Observationes comparatæ primi satellitis Jovis.

Ann.	Temp.	Observationis.		Calculus.		Diff. Calc. Observationis.
	M. D.	h ' "		h ' "		' "
1774.	Nov. 22.	8 27 22	Em.	8 28 10		0 48 + Stockh.
	Dec. 6.	11 9 25	-	11 10 7		0 42 + Paris. C.
		12 11 9	-	12 11 1		0 8 — Tyrnav.
	24.	4 52 25	-	4 52 47		0 22 + Stockh.
	29.	11 3 48	-	11 4 32		0 44 + Greenw.
		12 14 15	-	12 15 3		0 48 + Upsala.
		12 16 11	-	12 16 43		0 32 + Stockh.
	31.	6 25 5	-	6 25 17		0 12 + Lund.
1775.	Jan. 23.	6 48 55	-	6 49 43		0 48 + Tyrnav.
	Feb. 15.	5 53 2	-	5 53 32		0 30 + Greenw.
	22.	7 49 37	-	7 49 59		0 22 + Greenw.
		8 42 39	-	8 42 44		0 5 + Lund.
		9 0 6	-	9 0 11		0 5 + Tyrnav.
		9 1 55	-	9 2 10		0 15 + Stockh.
	Mart. 10.	7 23 51	-	7 23 53		0 2 + Tyrnav.
	17.	8 11 7	-	8 11 21		0 14 + Greenw.
	Jul. 15.	14 42 36	Im.	14 42 14		0 22 — Greenw.
	24.	13 5 40	-	13 5 46		0 6 + Petersb.
	Aug. 7.	14 53 55	-	14 53 26		0 29 — Greenw.
	16.	13 18 25	-	13 18 29		0 4 + Petersb.
	Sept. 1.	11 38 30	-	11 38 45		0 15 + Petersb.
	15.	15 31 7	-	15 30 54		0 13 — Petersb.
	24.	11 6 50	-	11 6 56		0 6 + Stockh.
	Oct. 1.	11 50 3	-	11 50 36		0 33 + Greenw.
		13 3 2	-	13 2 47		0 15 — Stockh.
	10.	9 27 23	-	9 27 20		0 3 — Stockh.
	22.	17 37 1	-	17 36 25		0 36 — Greenw.
	Nov. 2.	8 27 48	-	8 27 35		0 13 — Greenw.
	18.	7 54 22	-	7 54 5		0 17 — Stockh.
	Dec. 11.	10 6 5	Em.	10 6 34		0 29 + Stockh.
	20.	6 23 33	-	6 23 37		0 4 + Upsala.
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Ann.	Temp. Observationis		Calculus.	Diff. Calc.	Observatorium.
M. D.	h ' "		h ' "	' "	
1775. Dec. 20.	6 24 55	Em.	6 25 17	0 22 +	Stockh.
27.	7 3 6	-	7 4 9	1 3 +	Greenw.
	8 15 17	-	8 16 20	1 3 +	Stockh.
1776. Jan. 12.	6 26 48	-	6 27 22	0 34 +	Stockh.
19.	8 19 7	-	8 19 51	0 44 +	Stockh.
26.	10 12 15	-	10 13 7	0 52 +	Stockh.
28.	4 40 51	-	4 41 32	0 41 +	Stockh.
Febr. 2.	12 6 20	-	12 7 7	0 47 +	Stockh.
27.	6 51 5	-	6 51 33	0 28 +	Stockh.



XIV. *A Method of finding the Value of an infinite Series of decreasing Quantities of a certain Form, when it converges too slowly to be summed in the common Way by the mere Computation and Addition or Subtraction of some of its initial Terms.* By Francis Maferes, Esquire, F. R. S. *Cursitor Baron of the Exchequer.*

Read Feb. 13,  
1777.

ARTICLE Ist. Let  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  *ad infinitum*, represent a decreasing progression of numbers, so that  $b$  shall be less than  $a$ , and  $c$  than  $b$ , and  $d$  than  $c$ , and so on of the following numbers, *ad infinitum*.

And 2dly, let these numbers be so related to each other, that they not only shall form a decreasing progression themselves, but that their differences,  $a-b, b-c, c-d, d-e, e-f, f-g, g-h, \&c.$  shall also form a decreasing progression, so that  $b-c$  shall be less than  $a-b$ , and  $c-d$  than  $b-c$ , and  $d-e$  than  $c-d$ , and so on of the following differences; and likewise, that the differences of these differences (which may be called *the second differences* of the original numbers  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  shall form a decreasing progression; and that the differences of those second differences, or *the third differences* of the original

numbers  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  shall also form a decreasing progression; and in like manner, that the differences of the said third differences, or *the fourth differences*, of the original numbers  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  and the fifth and sixth differences, and all higher differences, of the same numbers, shall also form decreasing progressions.

And 3dly, let  $x$  be a quantity of any magnitude not greater than unity.

Upon these suppositions the value of the infinite series  $a - bx + cx^2 - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - hx^7 + \&c.$  (in which the second, fourth, sixth, and eighth, and every following even term, is marked with the sign  $-$ , or is to be subtracted from that which immediately precedes it) may be determined in the following manner.

Art. 2. Compute the first, second, third, fourth, and other subsequent differences of the co-efficients of the powers of  $x$  in this series, that is, of the numbers  $b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  as far as shall be convenient. These differences will be as follows.

First differences,  $b - c, c - d, d - e, e - f, f - g, g - h, \&c.$

Second differences,

$$b - c - [c - d], c - d - [d - e], d - e - [e - f], e - f - [f - g], f - g - [g - h], \&c.$$

$$\text{or, } b - 2c + d, c - 2d + e, d - 2e + f, e - 2f + g, f - 2g + h, \&c.$$

Third differences,

$$b - 2c + d - [c - 2d + e], c - 2d + e - [d - 2e + f], d - 2e + f - [e - 2f + g], \\ - 2f + g - [f - 2g + h], \&c.$$

or,

or,  $b-3c+3d-e$ ,  $c-3d+3e-f$ ,  $d-3e+3f-g$ ,  $e-3f+3g-h$ , &c.

Fourth differences,  $b-3c+3d-e-\overbrace{c-3d+3e-f}^{\quad}$ ,

$$c-3d+3e-f-\overbrace{d-3e+3f-g}^{\quad},$$

$$d-3e+3f-g-\overbrace{e-3f+3g-h}^{\quad}, \&c.$$

or,  $b-4c+6d-4e+f$ ,  $c-4d+6e-4f+g$ ,  $d-4e+6f-4g+h$ , &c.

Fifth differences,  $b-4c+6d-4e+f-\overbrace{c-4d+6e-4f+g}^{\quad}$ ,

$$c-4d+6e-4f+g-\overbrace{d-4e+6f-4g+h}^{\quad}, \&c.$$

or,  $b-5c+10d-10e+5f-g$ ,  $c-5d+10e-10f+5g-h$ , &c.

Sixth differences,

$$b-5c+10d-10e+5f-g-\overbrace{c-5d+10e-10f+5g-h}^{\quad}, \&c.$$

$$\text{or, } b-6c+15d-20e+15f-6g+h, \&c.$$

Let the first difference of the first order, to wit,

$$b-c, \text{ be called } D^I;$$

and the first difference of the second order, to wit,

$$b-2c+d, \text{ be called } D^{II};$$

and the first difference of the third order, to wit,

$$b-3c+3d-e, \text{ be called } D^{III};$$

and the first difference of the fourth order, to wit,

$$b-4c+6d-4e+f, \text{ be called } D^{IV};$$

and the first difference of the fifth order, to wit,

$$b-5c+10d-10e+5f-g, \text{ be called } D^V;$$

and the first difference of the sixth order, to wit,

$$b-6c+15d-20e+15f-6g+h, \text{ be called } D^{VI};$$

and in like manner let the first differences of the seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth, and every following order of differences be denoted by  $D^{VII}$ ,  $D^{VIII}$ ,  $D^{IX}$ ,  $D^X$ , &c. that is, by the capital letter D, with a Roman numeral figure

annexed;

annexed to it, expressing the order of differences to which it belongs.

These things being supposed, the aforefaid infinite series  $a - bx + cx^2 - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - bx^7 + \&c.$  will be equal to the following differential series, to wit,

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^I xx}{1+x^2} - \frac{D^{II} x^3}{1+x^3} - \frac{D^{III} x^4}{1+x^4} - \frac{D^{IV} x^5}{1+x^5} - \frac{D^V x^6}{1+x^6} - \frac{D^{VI} x^7}{1+x^7} - \&c.;$$

in which series all the terms after the first term  $a$  are marked with the sign  $-$ , or are to be subtracted from that term.

Art. 3. If we insert the differences themselves instead of  $D^I$ ,  $D^{II}$ ,  $D^{III}$ ,  $D^{IV}$ ,  $D^V$ , &c. in the foregoing differential series (which it may perhaps sometimes be convenient to do) that series will be as follows:  $a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \sqrt{b-c} \times \frac{xx}{1+x^2}$

$$- \sqrt{b-2c+d} \times \frac{x^3}{1+x^3} - \sqrt{b-3c+3d-e} \times \frac{x^4}{1+x^4}$$

$$- \sqrt{b-4c+6d-4e+f} \times \frac{x^5}{1+x^5}$$

$$- \sqrt{b-5c+10d-10e+5f-g} \times \frac{x^6}{1+x^6}$$

$$- \sqrt{b-6c+15d-20e+15f-6g+bx} \times \frac{x^7}{1+x^7} - \&c. \text{ ad infinitum.}$$

*Of the convergency of the foregoing differential series.*

Art. 4. The foregoing differential series will always converge with a considerable degree of swiftness, so that



that fix or eight of its terms will give the value of the whole (and consequently that of the original series  $a-bx+cx^2-dx^3+ex^4-fx^5+gx^6-hx^7+\&c.$  to which it is equal) exact to several places of figures, even in the most difficult cases: for if  $x$  is = 1 (which is its greatest possible magnitude)  $1+x$  will be = 1+1 or 2, and consequently  $\overline{1+x}^2$ ,  $\overline{1+x}^3$ ,  $\overline{1+x}^4$ ,  $\overline{1+x}^5$ , and the following powers of  $1+x$ , will be equal to 4, 8, 16, 32, and the following powers of 2; and the powers of the fraction  $\frac{x}{1+x}$  will be equal to the powers of  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore the series  $a-\frac{bx}{1+x}-\frac{D^I xx}{\overline{1+x}^2}-\frac{D^{II} x^3}{\overline{1+x}^3}-\frac{D^{III} x^4}{\overline{1+x}^4}-\frac{D^{IV} x^5}{\overline{1+x}^5}-\frac{D^V x^6}{\overline{1+x}^6}-\frac{D^{VI} x^7}{\overline{1+x}^7}-\&c.$  will in this case be = to  $a-\frac{b}{2}-\frac{D^I}{4}-\frac{D^{II}}{8}-\frac{D^{III}}{16}-\frac{D^{IV}}{32}-\frac{D^V}{64}-\frac{D^{VI}}{128}-\&c.$  the terms of which decrease in a greater proportion than that of 1 to 2, because the numerators  $a, b, D^I, D^{II}, D^{III}, D^{IV}, D^V, D^{VI}, \&c.$  form a decreasing progression, and the denominators increase in the proportion of 2 to 1.

*Of the investigation of the foregoing differential series.*

Art. 5. The foregoing differential series was investigated by first, supposing the original series  $a-bx+cx^2-dx^3+ex^4-fx^5+gx^6-hx^7+\&c.$  to be equal to another series whose terms should involve the same powers of  $x$  as the former, but in which every power of  $x$  should be multiplied

multiplied into the same power of the fraction  $\frac{1}{1+x}$ , in order to accelerate their convergency, and then inquiring what would be the co-efficients of the terms of such a series, if such a series is possible, and what would be the signs to be prefixed to them, or in what manner they would be connected with the first term, whether by addition or subtraction. In order to this inquiry, I denoted the unknown co-efficients of the assumed series by the capital letters P, Q, R, S, T, V, &c. and wrote down the terms of it near each other, without prefixing to them either of the signs + and -, but separated them from each other only by a comma; so that the fundamental equation, from which I derived the differential series above-mentioned, was as follows:  $a - bx + cx^2 - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - hx^7 + \&c.$  is  $= P, \frac{Qx}{1+x}, \frac{Rxx}{(1+x)^2}, \frac{Sx^3}{(1+x)^3}, \frac{Tx^4}{(1+x)^4}, \frac{Vx^5}{(1+x)^5}, \&c.$  By necessary deductions from this equation it appeared that P would be equal to  $a$ ; and that all the following terms, of the assumed series, to wit,  $\frac{Qx}{1+x}, \frac{Rxx}{(1+x)^2}, \frac{Sx^3}{(1+x)^3}, \frac{Tx^4}{(1+x)^4}, \frac{Vx^5}{(1+x)^5}, \&c.$  must be subtracted from the first term P, or  $a$ ; and that Q would be equal to  $b - c$ , or  $D^I$ ; and  $R = b - c - \sqrt{c - d}$ , or  $b - 2c + d$ , or  $D^{II}$ ; and  $S = b - 2c + d - \sqrt{c - 2d + e}$ , or  $b - 3c + 3d - e$ , or  $D^{III}$ ; and

T =

$\tau = b - 4c + 6d - 4e + f$ , or  $D^{IV}$ ; and  $v = b - 5c + 10d - 10e + 5f - g$ , or  $D^V$ ; and so on of the following co-efficients, to wit, that every new co-efficient of the assumed series is equal to the first difference of the next order of the differences derived from the original co-efficients  $b, c, d, e, f, g, h$ , &c. And from hence I concluded that the series  $a - bx + cx^2 - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - hx^7 + \&c.$  was equal to the series,

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^I xx}{1+x|^2} - \frac{D^{II} x^3}{1+x|^3} - \frac{D^{III} x^4}{1+x|^4} - \frac{D^{IV} x^5}{1+x|^5} - \frac{D^V x^6}{1+x|^6} - \frac{D^{VI} x^7}{1+x|^7} - \&c.$$

Art. 6. The thought of supposing the original series  $a - bx + cx^2 - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + \&c.$  to be equal to the series  $P, \frac{Qx}{1+x}, \frac{Rxx}{1+x|^2}, \frac{Sx^3}{1+x|^3}, \frac{Txx^4}{1+x|^4}, \frac{Vx^5}{1+x|^5}, \&c.$  containing the powers of  $x$  multiplied into the same powers of the fraction  $\frac{1}{1+x}$  in order to accelerate their convergency, occurred to me in consequence of reading the late Mr. THOMAS SIMPSON's Mathematical Differtations, p. 62, 63. concerning the summation of serieses, in which he makes a supposition of a similar kind. Yet there seems to be a considerable difference between his proposition and that which is the subject of these pages; for he seems to suppose his quantities  $p, q, r, s, t$ , &c. (which answer to  $a, b, c, d, e$ , &c. in the notation made use of in the above serieses) to form an increasing progression of terms, and accordingly subtracts  $p$  from  $q$ , and  $q$  from  $r$ ,

and  $r$  from  $s$ , and  $s$  from  $t$ , and so on; and he seems also to suppose the differences  $q-p$ ,  $r-q$ ,  $s-r$ ,  $t-s$ , &c. to form an increasing progression, and every subsequent order of differences to form likewise an increasing progression, and accordingly subtracts  $q-p$  from  $r-q$ , and  $r-q$  from  $s-r$ , and  $s-r$  from  $t-s$ , and so on; whereas in the foregoing series  $a-bx+cx^2-dx^3+ex^4-fx^5+gx^6-hx^7+\&c.$  the numbers  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h$ , &c. are supposed to form a decreasing progression of terms, as they are most commonly found to do in the serieses that occur in the solution of mathematical or philosophical problems.

*Examples of the usefulness of the foregoing differential series in finding the values of infinite serieses whose terms decrease very slowly.*

*Computations of the lengths of circular arcs by means of infinite serieses derived from their tangents.*

Art. 7. It is well known, that if  $r$  be put for the radius of a circle, and  $t$  for the tangent of any arch in it that is not greater than  $45^\circ$ , the magnitude of the arch whose tangent is  $t$  will be expressed by the infinite series

$$t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^3} - \frac{t^7}{7r^5} + \frac{t^9}{9r^7} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^9} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{11}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{13}} + \&c.$$

This series converges with great swiftness when the tangent is

much less than the radius; but when the tangent is nearly equal to the radius, it converges exceeding slowly; and when it is quite equal to the radius, or the arch is equal to  $45^\circ$ , the decrease of the terms is so slow as to make the computation of it in the common way, by computing the value of its initial terms, absolutely impracticable. For Sir ISAAC NEWTON has observed concerning this series in that extreme case (which then becomes equal to  $r - \frac{r}{3} + \frac{r}{5} - \frac{r}{7} + \frac{r}{9} - \frac{r}{11} + \frac{r}{13} - \frac{r}{15} + \&c.$ ) and another series that is almost as slow as this, that to exhibit its value exact to twenty decimal places of figures, there would be occasion for no less than five thousand millions of its terms, to compute which would take up above a thousand years. See Sir ISAAC NEWTON's second letter to Mr. OLDENBURGH, dated October 24, 1676, in the *Commercium Epistolicum*, p. 159. In these cases therefore it will be convenient to make use of some artifice to discover the value of the series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^3} - \frac{t^7}{7r^5} + \frac{t^9}{9r^7} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^9} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{11}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{13}} + \&c.$ ; and we shall find the application of the differential series above-mentioned to be a very proper artifice for this purpose.

Art. 8. In order to make this application, we must consider the series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^3} - \frac{t^7}{7r^5} + \frac{t^9}{9r^7} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^9} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{11}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{13}} + \&c.$  as being the product of the multiplication of  $t$  into the

series  $1 - \frac{tt}{3rr} + \frac{t^4}{5r^4} - \frac{t^6}{7r^6} + \frac{t^8}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{10}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{15r^{14}} + \&c.$  and must substitute  $x$  instead of  $\frac{tt}{rr}$  in the terms of this last series, by which means it will be converted into the series  $1 - \frac{x}{3} + \frac{xx}{5} - \frac{x^3}{7} + \frac{x^4}{9} - \frac{x^5}{11} + \frac{x^6}{13} - \frac{x^7}{15} + \&c.$  This series is of the same form with the original series above-mentioned,  $a - bx + cxx - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - hx^7 + \&c.$  the numeral co-efficients  $1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{11}, \frac{1}{13}, \frac{1}{15}, \&c.$  of the powers of  $x$  in the former series answering to the literal or general co-efficients  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  of the same powers in the latter series. And these numeral co-efficients evidently form a decreasing progression, as the co-efficients  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  are supposed to do; and we shall find, upon examination, that the differences of these numeral co-efficients, of the several successive orders, also constitute decreasing progressions, as the several successive orders of differences of the co-efficients  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  are supposed to do. Consequently the series  $1 - \frac{x}{3} + \frac{xx}{5} - \frac{x^3}{7} + \frac{x^4}{9} - \frac{x^5}{11} + \frac{x^6}{13} - \frac{x^7}{15} + \&c.$  will be equal to the differential series

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^I xx}{1+x)^2} - \frac{D^{II} x^3}{1+x)^3} - \frac{D^{III} x^4}{1+x)^4} - \frac{D^{IV} x^5}{1+x)^5} - \frac{D^V x^6}{1+x)^6} - \frac{D^{VI} x^7}{1+x)^7} - \&c. \text{ if}$$

we suppose the letters  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  to be equal to the numbers  $1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{11}, \frac{1}{13}, \frac{1}{15}, \&c.$  and  $D^I, D^{II}, D^{III}, D^{IV}, D^V, D^{VI}, \&c.$  to be the first differences of

the several orders of differences of those numbers, beginning from the second term  $\frac{1}{3}$ . Now the values of these numbers,  $1, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{7}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{11}, \frac{1}{13}, \frac{1}{15}$ , &c. and of their differences of the several successive orders, beginning from the second term  $\frac{1}{3}$ , will, when expressed in decimal fractions, be as follows:

$$1 \text{ is } = 1.000,000,000,000;$$

$$\frac{1}{3} = .333,333,333,333;$$

$$\frac{1}{5} = .200,000,000,000;$$

$$\frac{1}{7} = .142,857,142,857;$$

$$\frac{1}{9} = .111,111,111,111;$$

$$\frac{1}{11} = .090,909,090,909;$$

$$\frac{1}{13} = .076,923,076,923;$$

$$\frac{1}{15} = .066,666,666,666.$$

The differences of these numbers, beginning from the second term,  $.333,333,333,33$ , are as follows:

First differences.

Second differences.

$$.133,333,333,333;$$

$$.076,190,476,190;$$

$$.057,142,857,143;$$

$$.025,396,825,397;$$

$$.031,746,031,746;$$

$$.011,544,011,544;$$

$$.020,202,020,202;$$

$$.006,216,006,216;$$

$$.013,986,013,986;$$

$$.003,729,603,729;$$

$$.010,256,410,257;$$

$$\&c.$$

&c.

Third differences.

.050,793,650,793;  
 .013,852,813,853;  
 .005,328,005,328;  
 .002,486,402,487;  
 &c.

Fourth differences.

.036,940,836,940;  
 .008,524,808,525;  
 .002,841,602,841;  
 &c.

Fifth differences.

.028,416,028,415;  
 .005,683,205,684;  
 &c.

Sixth differences.

.022,732,822,731;  
 &c.

Therefore  $D^I$  is = .133,333,333,333; $D^{II}$  = .076,190,476,190; $D^{III}$  = .050,793,650,793; $D^{IV}$  = .036,940,836,940; $D^V$  = .028,416,028,415; $D^{VI}$  = .022,732,822,731.

Therefore the series  $1 - \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{5} - \frac{x^3}{7} + \frac{x^4}{9} - \frac{x^5}{11} + \frac{x^6}{13} - \frac{x^7}{15} + \&c.$  is  
 equal to the series

$$1 - .333,333,333,333, \times \frac{x}{1+x}$$

$$- .133,333,333,333, \times \frac{x^2}{1+x^2}$$

$$- .076,190,476,190, \times \frac{x^3}{1+x^3}$$

$$- .050,793,650,793, \times \frac{x^4}{1+x^4}$$

$$- .036,$$



$$= .036,940,836,940, \times \frac{x^5}{1+x^2}$$

$$= .028,416,028,415, \times \frac{x^6}{1+x^2}$$

$$= .022,732,822,731, \times \frac{x^7}{1+x^2}$$

— &c.; and consequently the product of this latter series into the tangent  $t$  will be equal to the product of the former series  $1 - \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{5} - \frac{x^3}{7} + \frac{x^4}{9} - \frac{x^5}{11} + \frac{x^6}{13} - \frac{x^7}{15} + \&c.$  into the same quantity, that is, to the product of the series  $1 - \frac{tt}{3rr} + \frac{t^2}{5r^2} - \frac{t^3}{7r^3} + \frac{t^4}{9r^4} - \frac{t^5}{11r^5} + \frac{t^6}{13r^6} - \frac{t^7}{15r^7} + \&c.$  into the tangent  $t$ , or to the original series

$t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^2} - \frac{t^7}{7r^3} + \frac{t^9}{9r^4} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^5} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^6} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^7} + \&c.$  which expresses the magnitude of the arch of which  $t$  is the tangent.

### *Computation of an arch of 30 degrees.*

Art. 9. Now let  $t$  be the tangent of  $30^\circ$ , which is  $= r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ . Then will  $tt$  be  $= \frac{rr}{3}$ ; and  $\frac{tt}{rr}$ , or  $x$ ,  $= \frac{rr}{3rr}$ , or  $\frac{1}{3}$ . Therefore  $1+x$  will be  $= 1 + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{3}{3} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{4}{3}$ , and  $\frac{x}{1+x}$  will be  $= \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{4}{3}} = \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$ . Therefore  $\frac{xx}{1+x^2}$  will be  $= \frac{1}{16}$ , and  $\frac{x^3}{1+x^2}$   $= \frac{1}{64}$ , and  $\frac{x^4}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{256}$ , and  $x^5 = \frac{1}{1024}$ , and  $x^6 = \frac{1}{4096}$ , and  $x^7 = \frac{1}{16384}$ . Consequently the differential series will in this

case

case be equal to

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &- .333,333,333,333, \times \frac{1}{4} \\
 &- .133,333,333,333, \times \frac{1}{16} \\
 &- .076,190,476,190, \times \frac{1}{64} \\
 &- .050,793,650,793, \times \frac{1}{256} \\
 &- .036,940,836,940, \times \frac{1}{1024} \\
 &- .028,416,028,415, \times \frac{1}{4096} \\
 &- .022,732,822,731, \times \frac{1}{16384} \\
 &- \&c. = 1 - .083,333,333,333, \\
 &\quad - .008,333,333,333, \\
 &\quad - .001,190,476,190, \\
 &\quad - .000,198,412,698, \\
 &\quad - .000,036,075,036, \\
 &\quad - .000,006,937,506, \\
 &\quad - .000,001,387,501, \\
 &\quad - \&c.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= 1 - .093,099,955,597, = 0.906,900,044,403.$$

Therefore the series  $1 - \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{5} - \frac{x^3}{7} + \frac{x^4}{9} - \frac{x^5}{11} + \frac{x^6}{13} - \frac{x^7}{15} + \&c.$  or

$$1 - \frac{xt}{3rr} + \frac{t^2}{5r^2} - \frac{t^3}{7r^3} + \frac{t^4}{9r^4} - \frac{t^{10}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{15r^{14}} + \&c. \text{ is in this case}$$

$= 0.906,900,044,403$ , or (neglecting the latter figures after the sixth place of figures, because we are sure they

are

are not exact) 0.906,900. Therefore the product of the series  $1 - \frac{t^2}{3r^2} + \frac{t^4}{5r^4} - \frac{t^6}{7r^6} + \frac{t^8}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{10}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{15r^{14}} + \&c.$  into the tangent  $t$  is equal to 0.906,900,  $\times t = 0.906,900 \times r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$

$= 0.906,900, \times r \times \frac{1}{1.732,050,8} = 0.906,900 \times r$   
 $\times .577,350,2 = 0.523,598,8 \times r$ ; that is, the series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3r^2} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \&c.$  (which expresses the magnitude of the arch of which  $t$  is the tangent) is in this case  $= 0.523,598,8 \times r$ , or an arch of  $30^\circ$  is equal to  $0.523,598,8 \times r$ .

Art. 10. This value of an arch of  $30^\circ$  is exact in the six first places of figures, and errs only an unit in the seventh figure, which should be a 7 instead of an 8, the more exact value of that arch being 0.523,598,775,598, &c. And thus by the help of only eight terms of the differential series

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^1xx^2}{1+x^2} - \frac{D^2xx^3}{1+x^3} - \frac{D^3xx^4}{1+x^4} - \frac{D^4xx^5}{1+x^5} - \frac{D^5xx^6}{1+x^6} - \frac{D^6xx^7}{1+x^7} - \&c. \text{ we}$$

have obtained the value of the series

$$t - \frac{t^3}{3r^2} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \&c. \text{ in the case of}$$

an arch of 30 degrees, exact to six places of figures. This degree of exactness is the same with that which we should attain by computing twelve terms of the series

$$t - \frac{t^3}{3r^2} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \&c. \text{ itself, as will}$$

appear from the following calculation.

Art. 11. The series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \frac{t^{17}}{17r^{16}} - \frac{t^{19}}{19r^{18}} + \frac{t^{21}}{21r^{20}} - \frac{t^{23}}{23r^{22}} + \&c.$  is  $= t \times$  the series

$$1 - \frac{tt}{3rr} + \frac{t^4}{5r^4} - \frac{t^6}{7r^6} + \frac{t^8}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{10}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{15r^{14}} + \frac{t^{16}}{17r^{16}} - \frac{t^{18}}{19r^{18}} + \frac{t^{20}}{21r^{20}} - \frac{t^{22}}{23r^{22}} + \&c. =,$$

in the case of an arch of  $30^\circ$ , to  $r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$  into the series

$$1 - \frac{1}{3 \times 3} + \frac{1}{5 \times 9} - \frac{1}{7 \times 27} + \frac{1}{9 \times 81} - \frac{1}{11 \times 243} + \frac{1}{13 \times 729} - \frac{1}{15 \times 2187} + \frac{1}{17 \times 6561} - \frac{1}{19 \times 19683} + \frac{1}{21 \times 59049} - \frac{1}{23 \times 177147} + \&c.$$

$$= r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \times \text{the series } 1.000,000,000,000, - \frac{.333,333,333,333}{3}$$

$$+ \frac{.111,111,111,111}{5} - \frac{.037,037,037,037}{7}$$

$$+ \frac{.012,345,679,012}{9} - \frac{.004,115,226,337}{11}$$

$$+ \frac{.001,371,742,112}{13} - \frac{.000,457,247,370}{15}$$

$$+ \frac{.000,152,415,790}{17} - \frac{.000,050,805,263}{19}$$

$$+ \frac{.000,016,935,087}{21} - \frac{.000,005,645,029}{23}$$

$$+ \&c.$$

$$= r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \times \text{the series}$$

$$1.000,000,000,000, - .111,111,111,111,$$

$$+ .022,222,222,222, - .005,291,005,291,$$

$$+ .001,371,742,112, - .000,374,111,485,$$

$$+ .000,105,518,624, - .000,030,483,158,$$

$$+ .000,008,965,634, - .000,002,673,961,$$

$$+ .000,000,806,432, - .000,000,245,436,$$

$$+ \&c.$$

I

$$= r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \times 1.023,709,255,024, - .116,809,620.442, \\ + \&c.$$

$$= r \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \times .906,899,624,582,$$

$$= r \times \frac{1}{1732,050,8} \times .906,899,624,582,$$

$= r \times .577,350,2 \times .906,899,624,582$ , = (if we neglect the fix latter figures of 906,899,624,582, which we know to be not exact)  $r \times .577,350,2 \times 906,899$ ,  $= r \times .523,598,319,029,8$ ; of which the first fix figures .523,598, are exact.

*Computation of an arch of 45 degrees.*

Art. 12. Now let the tangent  $t$  be equal to the radius  $r$ , or the arch (whose magnitude is expressed by the series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^3} - \frac{t^7}{7r^5} + \frac{t^9}{9r^7} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^9} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{11}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{13}} + \&c.$ ) be an arch of  $45^\circ$ . This series will, in this case, become equal to  $r - \frac{r}{3} + \frac{r}{5} - \frac{r}{7} + \frac{r}{9} - \frac{r}{11} + \frac{r}{13} - \frac{r}{15} + \&c.$  of which the first eight terms will give the value of the whole exact to only one figure, as will appear by the following computation. These terms are equal to  $r \times$  the eight terms  $1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{13} - \frac{1}{15}$ , that is, to  $r \times$  the eight terms

$$1.000,000,000,000, - .333,333,333,333, \\ + .200,000,000,000, - .142,857,142,857, \\ + .111,111,111,111, - .090,909,090,909, \\ + .076,923,076,923, - .066,666,666,666,$$

$= r \times \sqrt{1.388,034,187,034, -.633,766,233,765,}$   
 $= r \times .754,267,943,269;$  which agrees with the value  
 of the whole series  $r - \frac{r}{3} + \frac{r}{5} - \frac{r}{7} + \frac{r}{9} - \frac{r}{11} + \&c.$  only in the  
 highest figure 7, the more exact value of that series  
 being .785,398,163,397, &c. But, if we compute eight  
 terms of the differential series which is equal to the  
 series  $r - \frac{r}{3} + \frac{r}{5} - \frac{r}{7} + \frac{r}{9} - \frac{r}{11} + \&c.$ , we shall thereby obtain  
 its value exact to three places of figures; which is as  
 great a degree of exactness as would be attained by  
 computing about five hundred terms of the series  
 $r - \frac{r}{3} + \frac{r}{5} - \frac{r}{7} + \frac{r}{9} - \frac{r}{11} + \frac{r}{13} - \frac{r}{15} + \&c.$  itself. The computation  
 of the eight first terms of the said differential series is as  
 follows.

Art. 13. Since  $t$  is in this case  $= r$ ,  $tt$  will be  $= rr$ ,  
 and consequently  $\frac{tt}{rr}$ , or  $x$ , will be  $= 1$ . Therefore  $xx$ ,  $x^3$ ,  
 $x^4$ ,  $x^5$ , and all the other powers of  $x$ , will in this case be  
 equal to 1, and  $1+x$  will be equal to  $1+1$ , or 2, and the  
 powers of  $1+x$  to the powers of 2. Therefore the frac-  
 tion  $\frac{x}{1+x}$  and its powers will be equal in this case to the  
 fraction  $\frac{1}{2}$  and its powers. Therefore the general differ-  
 ential series in art. 8. to wit,

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &- .333,333,333,333, \times \frac{x}{1+x} \\
 &- .133,333,333,333, \times \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} \\
 &- .076,190,476,190, \times \frac{x^3}{1+x^3} \\
 &- .050,793,650,793, \times \frac{x^4}{1+x^4} \\
 &- .036,940,836,940, \times \frac{x^5}{1+x^5} \\
 &- .028,416,028,415, \times \frac{x^6}{1+x^6} \\
 &- .022,732,822,731, \times \frac{x^7}{1+x^7}
 \end{aligned}$$

- &c. will become in this case equal to

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &- .333,333,333,333, \times \frac{1}{2} \\
 &- .133,333,333,333, \times \frac{1}{4} \\
 &- .076,190,476,190, \times \frac{1}{8} \\
 &- .050,793,650,793, \times \frac{1}{16} \\
 &- .036,940,836,940, \times \frac{1}{32} \\
 &- .028,416,028,415, \times \frac{1}{64} \\
 &- .022,732,822,731, \times \frac{1}{128} \\
 &- \&c. = 1 - .166,666,666,666, \\
 &\quad - .033,333,333,333, \\
 &\quad - .009,523,809,523,
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & - .003,174,603,174, \\
 & - .001,154,401,154, \\
 & - .000,444,000,443, \\
 & - .000,177,600,177, \\
 & - \&c.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= 1 - .214,474,414,470, = .785,525,585,530.$$

Therefore the series  $1 - \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{5} - \frac{x^3}{7} + \frac{x^4}{9} - \frac{x^5}{11} + \frac{x^6}{13} - \frac{x^7}{15} + \&c.$  or

$$1 - \frac{t^2}{3r^2} + \frac{t^4}{5r^4} - \frac{t^6}{7r^6} + \frac{t^8}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{10}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{15r^{14}} + \&c. \text{ is equal to}$$

$.785,525,585,530$ ; and consequently the series

$$t - \frac{t^3}{3r^2} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \&c. \text{ is in this case}$$

$= t \times .785,525,585,530, = r \times .785,525,585,530$ ; that is, the length of an arch of  $45^\circ$ , in a circle whose radius is  $r$ , is  $= r \times .785,525,585,530$ ; which number is true to three places of figures, the more exact value of that arch being  $r \times .785,398,163,397, \&c.$

Art. 14. It has been asserted in art. 12. that in order to obtain the value of the series

$$t - \frac{t^3}{3r^2} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \&c. \text{ exact to 3}$$

places of decimal figures by the mere computation of its terms, in the case of an arch of  $45^\circ$ , we must compute at least 500 of its terms. This may be proved in the following manner. The indexes of the powers of  $t$  in that series are the odd numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15,   
 $\&c.$



&c. in their natural order; to which if we add an unit, the numbers thereby produced will be the even numbers 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, &c. in their natural order, which are the doubles of the natural numbers, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, &c. Therefore the number of terms of that series from the beginning of it to any given term in it, including the said term, is always half the number that is produced by adding an unit to the index of  $t$  in the said term. Thus, if we take the term  $\frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}}$ , and add 1 to 11, which is the index of the power of  $t$  in it, the sum will be 12, the half of which is 6, which is the number of terms in the series from the beginning of it to the term  $\frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}}$ , including the said term, that term being the sixth term in the series. If therefore we take the term  $\frac{t^{999}}{999r^{998}}$ , and are desirous of knowing its place in the series, or the number of terms from the beginning of the series to that term inclusively, we must add 1 to the index of the power of  $t$  in its numerator, which will increase it to 1000; and half this sum, to wit, 500, will be the number of terms from the beginning of the series to the term  $\frac{t^{999}}{999r^{998}}$  inclusively; or, in other words, this term will be the 500th term of the series. To arrive therefore at those terms of the series in which the indexes

dexes of the powers of  $t$  are greater than 999, or 1000, or in which the numeral co-efficients of the terms (which, by the law of this series, are equal to 1 divided by these indexes) are less than  $\frac{1}{999}$  or  $\frac{1}{1000}$ , it is necessary to compute 500 of its terms. Now when  $t$  is  $= r$ , and consequently the literal parts of the terms of this series do not converge at all, it is evidently necessary to carry the computation as far as those terms in which the numeral co-efficients of the terms are less than  $\frac{1}{999}$  or  $\frac{1}{1000}$ , in order to get the value of the series exact to the  $\frac{1}{999}$ th or  $\frac{1}{1000}$ th part of the radius  $r$ , or to the place of thousandths, or the third place of decimal figures. Therefore, when  $t$  is  $= r$ , or the arch is  $= 45^\circ$ , it is necessary to compute at least 500 terms of the series

$t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^3} - \frac{t^7}{7r^5} + \frac{t^9}{9r^7} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^9} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{11}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{13}} + \&c.$ , in order to obtain the value of it exact to three places of decimal figures, that is, to the same degree of exactness to which we attained in art. 13. by computing only eight terms of the above-mentioned differential series. *Q. E. D.*

Art. 15. But the best way of applying the aforefaid differential series to the investigation of the value of one of these very flow serieses, is to compute a moderate number of the first terms of the flow series in the common way, and then apply the differential series to the

computation of its remaining terms. The advantage of this method of proceeding will be manifest, if we apply it to the foregoing example of the series

$t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \&c.$  in the case of an arch of  $45^\circ$ .

Compute therefore the first twelve terms of this series in the common way. These terms will be as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} t &= r = r \times 1.000,000,000,000; \\ \frac{t^3}{3rr} &= \frac{r^3}{3rr} = \frac{r}{3} = r \times .333,333,333,333; \\ \frac{t^5}{5r^4} &= \frac{r^5}{5r^4} = \frac{r}{5} = r \times .200,000,000,000; \\ \frac{t^7}{7r^6} &= \frac{r^7}{7r^6} = \frac{r}{7} = r \times .142,857,142,857; \\ \frac{t^9}{9r^8} &= \frac{r^9}{9r^8} = \frac{r}{9} = r \times .111,111,111,111; \\ \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} &= \frac{r^{11}}{11r^{10}} = \frac{r}{11} = r \times .090,909,090,909; \\ \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} &= \frac{r^{13}}{13r^{12}} = \frac{r}{13} = r \times .076,923,076,923; \\ \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} &= \frac{r^{15}}{15r^{14}} = \frac{r}{15} = r \times .066,666,666,666; \\ \frac{t^{17}}{17r^{16}} &= \frac{r^{17}}{17r^{16}} = \frac{r}{17} = r \times .058,823,529,411; \\ \frac{t^{19}}{19r^{18}} &= \frac{r^{19}}{19r^{18}} = \frac{r}{19} = r \times .052,631,578,947; \\ \frac{t^{21}}{21r^{20}} &= \frac{r^{21}}{21r^{20}} = \frac{r}{21} = r \times .047,619,047,619; \\ \frac{t^{23}}{23r^{22}} &= \frac{r^{23}}{23r^{22}} = \frac{r}{23} = r \times .043,478,260,869. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the twelve terms  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}}$   
 $+ \frac{t^{13}}{13r^{12}} - \frac{t^{15}}{15r^{14}} + \frac{t^{17}}{17r^{16}} - \frac{t^{19}}{19r^{18}} + \frac{t^{21}}{21r^{20}} - \frac{t^{23}}{23r^{22}}$  are

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} r \times 1.000,000,000,000, -r \times .333,333,333,333, \\ +r \times .200,000,000,000, -r \times .142,857,142,857, \\ +r \times .111,111,111,111, -r \times .090,909,090,909, \\ +r \times .076,923,076,923, -r \times .066,666,666,666, \\ +r \times .058,823,529,411, -r \times .052,631,578,947, \\ +r \times .047,619,047,619, -r \times .043,478,260,869, \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= r \times 1.494,476,765,064, -r \times .729,876,073,581,$$

$$= r \times .764,600,691,483.$$

Having thus found the value of the first twelve terms of the series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \&c.$  to be  $r \times .764,600,691,483$ , we must apply the differential series to the discovery of the value of the remaining part of this series, which is the series

$\frac{t^{25}}{25r^{24}} - \frac{t^{27}}{27r^{26}} + \frac{t^{29}}{29r^{28}} - \frac{t^{31}}{31r^{30}} + \frac{t^{33}}{33r^{32}} - \frac{t^{35}}{35r^{34}} + \frac{t^{37}}{37r^{36}} - \frac{t^{39}}{39r^{38}} + \&c.$  *ad infinitum*. Now this series is equal to the product of  $\frac{t^{25}}{r^{24}}$  into the series  $\frac{1}{25} - \frac{tt}{27rr} + \frac{t^4}{29r^4} - \frac{t^6}{31r^6} + \frac{t^8}{33r^8} - \frac{t^{10}}{35r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{37r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{39r^{14}} + \&c.$  or (putting  $x$ , as before,  $= \frac{tt}{rr}$ ) to the product of  $\frac{t^{25}}{r^{24}}$  into the series

series  $\frac{1}{25} - \frac{x}{27} + \frac{xx}{29} - \frac{x^3}{31} + \frac{x^4}{33} - \frac{x^5}{35} + \frac{x^6}{37} - \frac{x^7}{39} + \&c.$  which is of the same form with the series  $a - bx + cx^2 - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - hx^7 + \&c.$  Therefore, if we put  $a = \frac{1}{25}$ ,  $b = \frac{1}{27}$ ,  $c = \frac{1}{29}$ ,  $d = \frac{1}{31}$ ,  $e = \frac{1}{33}$ ,  $f = \frac{1}{35}$ ,  $g = \frac{1}{37}$ ,  $h = \frac{1}{39}$ , and so on, and compute the differential series

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^1xx}{1+x|^2} - \frac{D^{11}x^3}{1+x|^3} - \frac{D^{111}x^4}{1+x|^4} - \frac{D^{1111}x^5}{1+x|^5} - \frac{D^{11111}x^6}{1+x|^6} - \frac{D^{111111}x^7}{1+x|^7} - \&c.$$

thence resulting, the number thereby obtained will be the value of the series  $\frac{1}{25} - \frac{x}{27} + \frac{xx}{29} - \frac{x^3}{31} + \frac{x^4}{33} - \frac{x^5}{35} + \frac{x^6}{37} - \frac{x^7}{39} + \&c.$  or  $\frac{1}{25} - \frac{tt}{27rr} + \frac{t^4}{29r^4} - \frac{t^6}{31r^6} + \frac{t^8}{33r^8} - \frac{t^{10}}{35r^{10}} + \frac{t^{12}}{37r^{12}} - \frac{t^{14}}{39r^{14}} + \&c.$  This computation is as follows:

$$\text{Here } a \text{ is } = \frac{1}{25} = .040,000,000,000;$$

$$b = \frac{1}{27} = .037,037,037,037;$$

$$c = \frac{1}{29} = .034,482,758,620;$$

$$d = \frac{1}{31} = .032,258,064,516;$$

$$e = \frac{1}{33} = .030,303,030,303;$$

$$f = \frac{1}{35} = .028,571,428,571;$$

$$g = \frac{1}{37} = .027,027,027,027;$$

$$h = \frac{1}{39} = .025,641,025,641.$$

The differences of these numbers (beginning from the second number  $\frac{1}{27}$ , or .037,037,037,037,) are as follows:

First differences.

.002,554,278,416;  
 .002,224,694,104;  
 .001,955,034,213;  
 .001,731,601,731;  
 .001,544,401,544;  
 .001,386,001,386.

Second differences.

.000,329,584,311;  
 .000,269,659,891;  
 .000,223,432,481;  
 .000,187,200,187;  
 .000,158,400,158.

Third differences.

.000,059,924,420;  
 .000,046,227,409;  
 .000,036,232,294;  
 .000,028,800,028.

Fourth differences.

.000,013,697,010;  
 .000,009,995,115;  
 .000,007,432,265.

Fifth differences.

.000,003,701,894;  
 .000,002,562,850.

Sixth differences.

.000,001,139,044.

Therefore  $D^I$  is = .002,554,278,416;

$D^{II}$  = .000,329,584,311;

$D^{III}$  = .000,059,924,420;

$D^{IV}$  = .000,013,697,010;

$D^V$  = .000,003,701,894;

$D^{VI}$  = .000,001,139,044.

Consequently the differential series

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^I x^2}{1+x^2} - \frac{D^{II} x^3}{1+x^3} - \frac{D^{III} x^4}{1+x^4} - \frac{D^{IV} x^5}{1+x^5} - \frac{D^V x^6}{1+x^6} - \frac{D^{VI} x^7}{1+x^7} - \&c. \text{ is to}$$

.040,

$$\begin{aligned}
 &.040,000,000,000, \\
 &- .037,037,037,037, \times \frac{x}{1+x} \\
 &- .002,554,278,416, \times \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} \\
 &- .000,329,584,311, \times \frac{x^3}{1+x^3} \\
 &- .000,059,924,420, \times \frac{x^4}{1+x^4} \\
 &- .000,013,697,010, \times \frac{x^5}{1+x^5} \\
 &- .000,003,701,894, \times \frac{x^6}{1+x^6} \\
 &- .000,001,139,044, \times \frac{x^7}{1+x^7} \\
 &- \&c.
 \end{aligned}$$

But, since  $t$  is in this case  $= r, \frac{tt}{rr}$ , or  $x$ , will be  $= 1$ , and consequently  $\frac{x}{1+x}$  will be  $= \frac{1}{1+1}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore the foregoing differential series is in this case equal to

$$\begin{aligned}
 &.040,000,000,000, \\
 &- .037,037,037,037, \times \frac{1}{2} \\
 &- .002,554,278,416, \times \frac{1}{4} \\
 &- .000,329,584,311, \times \frac{1}{8} \\
 &- .000,059,924,420, \times \frac{1}{16} \\
 &- .000,013,697,010, \times \frac{1}{32}
 \end{aligned}$$

- .000,

$$- .000,003,701,894, \times \frac{1}{64}$$

$$- .000,001,139,044, \times \frac{1}{128}$$

$$\begin{aligned} - \&c. = .040,000,000,000, - .018,518,518,518, \\ &- .000,638,569,604, \\ &- .000,041,198,038, \\ &- .000,003,745,276, \\ &- .000,000,428,031, \\ &- .000,000,057,842, \\ &- .000,000,008,898, \\ &- \&c. \end{aligned}$$

$$= .040,000,000,000, - .019,202,526,207, - \&c.$$

$$= .020,797,473,793 - \&c.$$

Therefore the series  $\frac{1}{25} - \frac{x}{27} + \frac{x^2}{29} - \frac{x^3}{31} + \frac{x^4}{33} - \frac{x^5}{35} + \frac{x^6}{37} - \frac{x^7}{39} + \&c.$  or

$\frac{1}{25} - \frac{t}{27rr} + \frac{t^2}{29r^2} - \frac{t^3}{31r^3} + \frac{t^4}{33r^4} - \frac{t^5}{35r^5} + \frac{t^6}{37r^6} - \frac{t^7}{39r^7} + \&c.$  is in this

case  $= .020,797,473,793$ . Therefore the series

$\frac{t^{25}}{25r^{24}} - \frac{t^{27}}{27r^{26}} + \frac{t^{29}}{29r^{28}} - \frac{t^{31}}{31r^{30}} + \frac{t^{33}}{33r^{32}} - \frac{t^{35}}{35r^{34}} + \frac{t^{37}}{37r^{36}} - \frac{t^{39}}{39r^{38}} + \&c.$  is in

this case equal to  $\frac{t^{25}}{r^{24}} \times .020,797,473,793$ , that is, to

$\frac{r^{25}}{r^{24}} \times .020,797,473,793$ , or  $r \times .020,797,473,793$ ; that

is, the remainder of the infinite series

$t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^2} - \frac{t^7}{7r^3} + \frac{t^9}{9r^4} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^5} + \&c.$  after the first twelve

terms, is  $= r \times .020,797,473,793$ . But we before found



those first twelve terms to be  $= r \times .764,600,691,483$ .  
 Therefore the whole series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} +$   
*&c. ad infinitum* is in this case  $= r \times .764,600,691,483,$   
 $+ r \times .020,797,473,793, = r \times .785,398,165,276,$   
 which is true to eight places of figures, the more exact  
 value of that series being  $r \times .785,398,163,397, \&c.$ ;  
 so that the value here found for this series, by the help  
 of only eight terms of the differential series, differs from  
 its true value by less than an unit in the eighth place of  
 decimal figures, that is, by less than an hundred-mil-  
 lionth part of the radius  $r$ , which is a degree of exact-  
 ness that could not have been attained by the mere com-  
 putation of the series  $t - \frac{t^3}{3rr} + \frac{t^5}{5r^4} - \frac{t^7}{7r^6} + \frac{t^9}{9r^8} - \frac{t^{11}}{11r^{10}} + \&c.$  it-  
 self without computing fifty millions of its terms. There  
 cannot be a stronger instance of the utility of that dif-  
 ferential series.

*Computation of the series which expresses the time of the  
 descent of a pendulum through the arch of a circle.*

Art. 16. As another example of the utility of the  
 foregoing differential series in finding the value of a se-  
 ries that converges very slowly, I will now apply it to  
 the series which expresses the time of descent of a  
 heavy body through a circular arch of  $90^\circ$ , which de-  
 creases

creases almost as slowly as the above-mentioned series  $r - \frac{r}{3} + \frac{r}{5} - \frac{r}{7} + \frac{r}{9} - \frac{r}{11} + \frac{r}{13} - \frac{r}{15} + \&c.$ , which expresses the magnitude of a circular arch of  $45^\circ$  in a circle whose radius is  $r$ .

Art. 17. If a heavy body, or a pendulum, be supposed to descend by the mere force of gravity through any arch of a circle not exceeding the arch of a quadrant, or  $90^\circ$ ; and the motion be supposed to begin from a state of rest, and to continue till the bob of the pendulum, or the heavy body, comes to the lowest point of the circle; and the radius of the circle be called  $r$ , the perpendicular height, or versed sine, of the arch through which the descent is made, be called  $v$ , and the right sine of the same arch be called  $s$ ; and  $\pi$  be put for the number 1.570,796,326,794, &c. which expresses the semi-circumference of a circle whose diameter is called 1; and the time of the fall of a heavy body through the versed sine  $v$ , or the perpendicular altitude of the arch through which the pendulum descends, be denoted by  $t$ ; the time of the descent of the pendulum through the said circular arch, corresponding to the versed sine or altitude  $v$ , to the lowest point of the circle, will be expressed by the product of  $\pi \times \frac{rv}{s}$  into the series

$$1 - \frac{1.1}{2.2} \times \frac{vv}{ss} + \frac{1.1}{2} \frac{3.3}{2.4.4} \times \frac{v^4}{s^4} - \frac{1.1.3.3.5.5}{2.2.4.4.6.6} \times \frac{v^6}{s^6} + \frac{1.1.3}{2.2.4.4.6.6.8.8} \frac{3.5.5.7.7}{s^8} \times \frac{v^8}{s^8}$$

$-\frac{1.1.3.3.5.5.7.7.9.9}{2.2.4.4.6.6.8.8.10.10} \times \frac{v^{10}}{s^{10}} + \&c.$  in which the law of the continuation of the terms is very manifest, every new term being derived from the preceding term by multiplying it into the fraction  $\frac{vv}{ss}$ , and likewise into a numeral fraction, whose denominator is the square of the index of the powers of  $v$  and  $s$  in the new term, and whose numerator is the square of the odd number that is less than the said index by an unit.

Art. 18. Let the numeral co-efficients of the terms of this series be denoted by the capital letters of the alphabet, A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, &c. in their natural order, so that A shall be equal to 1, and B shall be =  $\frac{1.1}{2.2}$ , and C =  $\frac{1.1.3.3}{2.2.4.4}$ , and D =  $\frac{1.1.3.3.5.5}{2.2.4.4.6.6}$ , and so on of the rest. And we shall have

B =  $\frac{1.1}{2.2}$  A, C =  $\frac{3.3}{4.4}$  B, D =  $\frac{5.5}{6.6}$  C, E =  $\frac{7.7}{8.8}$  D, F =  $\frac{9.9}{10.10}$  E, G =  $\frac{11.11}{12.12}$  F, H =  $\frac{13.13}{14.14}$  G, and so on; and consequently the series

$$1 - \frac{1.1}{2.2} \times \frac{vv}{ss} + \frac{1.1.3.3}{2.2.4.4} \times \frac{v^4}{s^4} - \frac{1.1.3.3.5.5}{2.2.4.4.6.6} \times \frac{v^6}{s^6} + \&c.$$

or A -  $\frac{Bvv}{ss} + \frac{Cv^4}{s^4} - \frac{Dv^6}{s^6} + \frac{Ev^8}{s^8} - \frac{Fv^{10}}{s^{10}} + \frac{Gv^{12}}{s^{12}} - \frac{Hv^{14}}{s^{14}} + \&c.$  will be A -  $\frac{1.1.Avv}{2.2.ss} + \frac{3.3.Bv^4}{4.4.s^4} - \frac{5.5.Cv^6}{6.6.s^6} + \frac{7.7.Dv^8}{8.8.s^8} - \frac{9.9.Ev^{10}}{10.10.s^{10}} + \frac{11.11.Fv^{12}}{12.12.s^{12}} - \frac{13.13.Gv^{14}}{14.14.s^{14}} + \&c.$  or A -  $\frac{1Avv}{4ss} + \frac{9Bv^4}{16s^4} - \frac{25Cv^6}{36s^6} + \frac{49Dv^8}{64s^8} - \frac{81Ev^{10}}{100s^{10}} + \frac{121Fv^{12}}{144s^{12}} - \frac{169Gv^{14}}{196s^{14}} + \&c.$  or, if we convert the co-efficients of the terms into decimal fractions,

$1 - .250,000,000,000, \times \frac{v^2}{s^2} + .140,625,000,000, \times \frac{v^4}{s^4}$   
 $- .097,656,250,000, \times \frac{v^6}{s^6} + .074,768,066,406, \times \frac{v^8}{s^8}$   
 $- .060,562,133,788, \times \frac{v^{10}}{s^{10}} + .050,889,015,196, \times \frac{v^{12}}{s^{12}}$   
 $- .043,878,793,714, \times \frac{v^{14}}{s^{14}} + \&c.$  The co-efficients of these terms decrease so slowly (especially after the first twelve or fourteen terms) that, when the versed sine  $v$  is very nearly equal to the right sine  $s$  (as is the case when the arch through which the heavy body descends is nearly equal to  $90^\circ$ , or the arch of a whole quadrant of a circle) it would be necessary to compute a vast number of the terms of the series in order to obtain its value exact to seven or eight places of figures; and, when  $v$  is quite equal to  $s$  (as is the case when the arch, through which the descent is made, is exactly equal to  $90^\circ$ ) the computation of the value of the series to that degree of exactness in that direct manner becomes wholly impracticable. But by the help of the differential series above-mentioned its value may be found, even in this case, to that degree of exactness without much difficulty; more especially if we compute the first twelve terms of the series in the common way, and then apply the differential series to the investigation of the remaining part of it in the same manner as in the last example. This we shall now proceed to do.

Art. 19. The co-efficients of the first twelve terms of the series  $A - \frac{1Avv}{4ss} + \frac{9Bv^4}{16s^4} - \frac{25Cv^6}{36s^6} + \frac{49Dv^8}{64s^8} - \frac{81Ev^{10}}{100s^{10}} + \frac{121Fv^{12}}{144s^{12}} - \frac{169Gv^{14}}{196s^{14}} + \&c.$  are as follows:

$$A = I = 1.000,000,000,000;$$

$$B = \frac{I}{4} = .250,000,000,000;$$

$$C = \frac{9B}{16} = .140,625,000,000;$$

$$D = \frac{25C}{36} = .097,656,250,000;$$

$$E = \frac{49D}{64} = .074,768,066,406;$$

$$F = \frac{81E}{100} = .060,562,133,788;$$

$$G = \frac{121F}{144} = .050,889,015,196;$$

$$H = \frac{169G}{196} = .043,878,793,714;$$

$$I = \frac{225H}{256} = .038,565,346,037;$$

$$K = \frac{289I}{324} = .034,399,336,434;$$

$$L = \frac{361K}{400} = .031,045,401,131;$$

$$M = \frac{441L}{484} = .028,287,235,328.$$

But when  $v$  is  $= s$ , as it is in the case of an arch of  $90^\circ$ ,

$\frac{vv}{ss}$  and all its powers will be  $= 1$ , and the twelve terms

$$A - \frac{Bvv}{ss} + \frac{Cv^4}{s^4} - \frac{Dv^6}{s^6} + \frac{Ev^8}{s^8} - \frac{Fv^{10}}{s^{10}} + \frac{Gv^{12}}{s^{12}} - \frac{Hv^{14}}{s^{14}} + \frac{Iv^{16}}{s^{16}} - \frac{Kv^{18}}{s^{18}} + \frac{Lv^{20}}{s^{20}} - \frac{Mv^{22}}{s^{22}}$$

will be equal to their co-efficients  $A-B+C-D+E-F+G-H+I-K+L-M$ , Therefore in this case the first twelve terms of this series are

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 1.000,000,000,000, - .250,000,000,000, \\
 & + .140,625,000,000, - .097,656,250,000, \\
 & + .074,768,066,406, - .060,562,133,788, \\
 & + .050,889,015,196, - .043,878,793,714, \\
 & + .038,565,346,037, - .034,399,336,434, \\
 & + .031,045,401,131, - .028,287,235,328, \\
 & \text{which are} = 1.335,892,828,770, - .514,783,749,264, \\
 & = .821,109,079,506.
 \end{aligned}$$

Art. 20. The remaining part of this series is

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \frac{Nv^{24}}{s^{24}} - \frac{Ov^{26}}{s^{26}} + \frac{Pv^{28}}{s^{28}} - \frac{Qv^{30}}{s^{30}} + \frac{Rv^{32}}{s^{32}} - \frac{Sv^{34}}{s^{34}} + \frac{Tv^{36}}{s^{36}} - \frac{Vv^{38}}{s^{38}} + \&c. \\
 \text{OR } & \frac{23.23.Mv^{24}}{24.24.s^{24}} - \frac{25.25.Nv^{26}}{26.26.s^{26}} + \frac{27.27.Ov^{28}}{28.28.s^{28}} - \frac{29.29.Pv^{30}}{30.30.s^{30}} + \frac{31.31.Qv^{32}}{32.32.s^{32}} \\
 & - \frac{33.33.Rv^{34}}{34.34.s^{34}} + \frac{35.35.Sv^{36}}{36.36.s^{36}} - \frac{37.37.Tv^{38}}{38.38.s^{38}} + \&c. \text{ OR} \\
 & .025,979,075,500, \times \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} - .024,019,115,661 \times \frac{v^{26}}{s^{26}} \\
 & + .022,334,101,169, \times \frac{v^{28}}{s^{28}} - .020,869,976,759 \times \frac{v^{30}}{s^{30}} \\
 & + .019,585,984,048, \times \frac{v^{32}}{s^{32}} - .018,450,810,232, \times \frac{v^{34}}{s^{34}} \\
 & + .017,440,001,955, \times \frac{v^{36}}{s^{36}} - .016,534,184,679, \times \frac{v^{38}}{s^{38}} \\
 & + \&c.; \text{ which is } = \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} \times \text{the series}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$.025,979,075,500, - .024,019,115,661, \frac{v}{s}$$

$$+ .022,$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &+ .022,334,101,169, \frac{v^4}{s^4} - .020,869,976,759, \frac{v^5}{s^5} \\
 &+ .019,585,984,048, \frac{v^6}{s^6} - .018,450,810,232, \frac{v^{10}}{s^{10}} \\
 &+ .017,440,001,955, \frac{v^{12}}{s^{12}} - .016,534,184,679, \frac{v^{14}}{s^{14}} \\
 &+ \&c. \text{ or, if we substitute } x \text{ in this last series instead of } \\
 &\frac{vv}{ss}, = \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} \times \text{the series}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &.025,979,075,500, - .024,019,115,661, x \\
 &+ .022,334,101,169, xx - .020,869,976,759, x^3 \\
 &+ .019,585,984,048, x^4 - .018,450,810,232, x^5 \\
 &+ .017,440,001,955, x^6 - .016,534,184,679, x^7 \\
 &+ \&c. \text{ Now the value of this last series may be disco-} \\
 &\text{vered by the application of the differential series}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^I xx}{1+x|^2} - \frac{D^{II} x^3}{1+x|^3} - \frac{D^{III} x^4}{1+x|^4} - \frac{D^{IV} x^5}{1+x|^5} - \frac{D^V x^6}{1+x|^6} - \frac{D^{VI} x^7}{1+x|^7} - \&c.$$

in the manner following:

$$\text{Here } a \text{ is } = .025,979,075,500;$$

$$b = .024,019,115,661;$$

$$c = .022,334,101,169;$$

$$d = .020,869,976,759;$$

$$e = .019,585,984,048;$$

$$f = .018,450,810,232;$$

$$g = .017,440,001,955;$$

$$\text{and } h = .016,534,184,679.$$

Therefore

Therefore the differences of  $b, c, d, e, f, g$ , and  $h$ , of the several successive orders, are as follows:

First differences.

$$b - c \text{ is } = .001,685,014,492;$$

$$c - d = .001,464,124,410;$$

$$d - e = .001,283,992,711;$$

$$e - f = .001,135,173,816;$$

$$f - g = .001,010,808,277;$$

$$g - b = .000,905,817,276.$$

Second differences.

$$.000,220,890,082;$$

$$.000,180,131,699;$$

$$.000,148,818,895;$$

$$.000,124,365,539;$$

$$.000,104,991,001.$$

Third differences.

$$.000,040,758,383;$$

$$.000,031,312,804;$$

$$.000,024,453,356;$$

$$.000,019,374,538.$$

Fourth differences.

$$.000,009,445,579;$$

$$.000,006,859,448;$$

$$.000,005,078,818.$$

Fifth differences.

$$.000,002,586,131;$$

$$.000,001,780,630.$$

Sixth differences.

$$.000,000,805,501.$$

$$\text{Therefore } D^I \text{ is } = .001,685,014,492;$$

$$D^{II} = .000,220,890,082;$$

$$D^{III} = .000,040,758,383;$$

$$D^{IV} = .000,009,445,579;$$

$$D^V = .000,002,586,131;$$

$$D^{VI} = .000,000,805,501.$$

Consequently the differential series

$$a - \frac{bx}{1+x} - \frac{D^I xx}{1+x^2} - \frac{D^{II} x^3}{1+x^3} - \frac{D^{III} x^4}{1+x^4} - \frac{D^{IV} x^5}{1+x^5} - \frac{D^V x^6}{1+x^6} - \frac{D^{VI} x^7}{1+x^7} - \&c. \text{ is } = \text{to}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 &.025,979,075,500, \\
 &- .024,019,115,661, \times \frac{x}{1+x} \\
 &- .001,685,014,492, \times \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} \\
 &- .000,220,890,082, \times \frac{x^3}{1+x^3} \\
 &- .000,040,758,383, \times \frac{x^4}{1+x^4} \\
 &- .000,009,445,579, \times \frac{x^5}{1+x^5} \\
 &- .000,002,586,131, \times \frac{x^6}{1+x^6} \\
 &- .000,000,805,501, \times \frac{x^7}{1+x^7} \\
 &- \&c.
 \end{aligned}$$

This is the general value of the said differential series, whatever may be the value of  $x$ , or  $\frac{vv}{ss}$ . But in the case here supposed of an arch of  $90^\circ$ , the versed sine  $v$  is equal to the sine  $s$ ; and therefore  $\frac{vv}{ss}$ , or  $x$ , is  $= 1$ , and  $\frac{x}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1+1}$ , or  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore the foregoing differential series is in this case equal to

$$\begin{aligned}
 &.025,979,075,500, \\
 &- .024,019,115,661, \times \frac{1}{2} \\
 &- .001,685,014,492, \times \frac{1}{4}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$- .000,$$

$$- .000,220,890,082, \times \frac{1}{8}$$

$$- .000,040,758,383, \times \frac{1}{16}$$

$$- .000,009,445,579, \times \frac{1}{32}$$

$$- .000,002,586,131, \times \frac{1}{64}$$

$$- .000,000,805,501, \times \frac{1}{128}$$

$$\begin{aligned} - \&c. = .025,979,075,500, - .012,009,557,830, \\ &- .000,421,253,623, \\ &- .000,027,611,260, \\ &- .000,002,547,398, \\ &- .000,000,295,174, \\ &- .000,000,040,408, \\ &- .000,000,006,292, \\ &- \&c. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= .025,979,075,500, - .012,461,311,985, \&c. \\ &= .013,517,763,515, - \&c. \quad \text{Therefore the series} \\ &\quad a - bx + cxx - dx^3 + ex^4 - fx^5 + gx^6 - hx^7 + \&c., \text{ or} \\ &\quad .025,979,075,500 - .024,019,115,661, x \\ &\quad + .022,334,101,169, xx - .020,869,976,759, x^3 \\ &\quad + .019,585,984,048, x^4 - .018,450,810,232, x^5 \\ &\quad + .017,440,001,955, x^6 - .016,534,184,679, x^7 \\ &\quad + \&c. \text{ is in this case} = .013,517,763,515, - \&c. \\ &\text{Therefore } \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} \times \text{this last series, or } \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} \times \text{the series} \end{aligned}$$

$.025,979,075,500, - .024,019,115,661, \frac{v^7}{s^7}$   
 $+ .022,334,101,169, \frac{v^8}{s^8} - .020,869,976,759, \frac{v^9}{s^9}$   
 $+ .019,585,984,048, \frac{v^{10}}{s^{10}} - .018,450,810,232, \frac{v^{11}}{s^{11}}$   
 $+ .017,440,001,955, \frac{v^{12}}{s^{12}} - .016,534,184,679, \frac{v^{13}}{s^{13}}$   
 $+ \&c. \text{ is in this case } = \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} \times .013,517,763,515, - \&c.$   
 That is, the series

$.025,979,075,500, \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} - .024,019,115,661, \frac{v^{26}}{s^{26}}$   
 $+ .022,334,101,169, \frac{v^{28}}{s^{28}} - .020,869,976,759, \frac{v^{30}}{s^{30}}$   
 $+ .019,585,984,048, \frac{v^{32}}{s^{32}} - .018,450,810,232, \times \frac{v^{34}}{s^{34}}$   
 $+ .017,440,001,955, \frac{v^{36}}{s^{36}} - .016,534,184,679, \frac{v^{38}}{s^{38}}$   
 $+ \&c., \text{ or } \frac{Nv^{24}}{s^{24}} - \frac{Ov^{26}}{s^{26}} + \frac{Pv^{28}}{s^{28}} - \frac{Qv^{30}}{s^{30}} + \frac{Rv^{32}}{s^{32}} - \frac{Sv^{34}}{s^{34}} + \frac{Tv^{36}}{s^{36}} - \frac{Vv^{38}}{s^{38}} + \&c. \text{ is}$   
 in this case  $= \frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}} \times .013,517,763,515, - \&c. =$  (because  
 $v$  is in this case  $= s$ , and consequently  $\frac{v^{24}}{s^{24}}$  is  $= 1$ )  
 $.013,517,763,515, - \&c.$  But we before found the  
 value of the first twelve terms of the series

$A - \frac{Bvv}{ss} + \frac{Cv^4}{s^4} - \frac{Dv^6}{s^6} + \frac{Ev^8}{s^8} - \frac{Fv^{10}}{s^{10}} + \&c. \text{ to be in this case } =$   
 $.821,109,079,506.$  Therefore the value of the whole  
 series  $A - \frac{Bvv}{ss} + \frac{Cv^4}{s^4} - \frac{Dv^6}{s^6} + \frac{Ev^8}{s^8} - \frac{Fv^{10}}{s^{10}} + \&c. \text{ ad infinitum}$  is in  
 this case  $= .821,109,079,506, + .013,517,763,515,$   
 VOL. LXVII. G g  $- \&c.$

$- \&c. = 834,626,843,021, - \&c.$  of which the first eight figures .834,626,84 are exact, the error being in the ninth figure 3, which ought to be a 2 instead of a 3, as would have appeared if we had computed another term or two of the differential series.

Art. 21. Since the series  $A - \frac{Bvv}{ss} + \frac{Cv^4}{s^4} - \frac{Dv^6}{s^6} + \frac{Ev^8}{s^8} - \frac{Fv^{10}}{s^{10}} + \&c.$ , or  $1 - \frac{1.1.Avv}{2.2.ss} + \frac{3.3.Bv^4}{4.4.s^4} - \frac{5.5.Cv^6}{6.6.s^6} + \frac{7.7.Dv^8}{8.8.s^8} - \frac{9.9.Ev^{10}}{10.10.s^{10}} - \&c.$  is, in this case of an arch of  $90^\circ$ ,  $= .834,626,843, - \&c.$ , or somewhat less than .834,626,843, the product of that series into  $\pi \times \frac{rv}{s}$ , will be  $= \pi \times \frac{rv}{s} \times .834,626,843, - \&c. =$  (because  $v$  is in this case  $= s$ )  $\pi \times r \times .834,626,843, - \&c.$   
 $= 1.570,796,326,794, \&c. \times r \times .834,626,843$   
 $- \&c. = r \times 1.311,028,779, - \&c.$ , or something less than  $r \times 1.311,028,779$ ; which is exact to nine places of figures, the more exact value of this quantity being  $r \times 1.311,028,777,146, \&c.$  as appears by a computation made by Mr. STIRLING, in his admirable Treatise on the Summation of Serieses, p. 58.

Art. 22. This value of the product of  $1.570,796,326,794, \&c. \times \frac{rv}{s}$  into the series

$1 - \frac{1.1.Avv}{2.2.ss} + \frac{3.3.Bv^4}{4.4.s^4} - \frac{5.5.Cv^6}{6.6.s^6} + \frac{7.7.Dv^8}{8.8.s^8} - \frac{9.9.Ev^{10}}{10.10.s^{10}} + \&c.$ , found by the foregoing processes in this extreme and most difficult case, to wit,  $1.311,028,779, \&c. \times r$ , exceeds its true value,

value, 1.311,028,777,146, &c.  $\times r$  by only .000,000,002,  $\times r$ , or two thousand-millionth parts of the radius; which is indeed a most minute difference, and shews the great exactness and utility of this differential series.

Art. 23. Of the nine figures to which the number 1.311,028,779, found by the foregoing process, is exact, the last eight are owing to the differential series. For if we were to multiply the value of the first twelve terms only of the series  $A - \frac{Bvv}{ss} + \frac{Cv^4}{s^4} - \frac{Dv^6}{s^6} + \frac{Ev^8}{s^8} - \frac{Fv^{10}}{s^{10}} + \&c.$ , or  $1 - \frac{1.1.Avv}{2.2.ss} + \frac{3.3.Bv^4}{4.4.s^4} - \frac{5.5.Cv^6}{6.6.s^6} + \frac{7.7.Dv^8}{8.8.s^8} - \frac{9.9.Ev^{10}}{10.10.s^{10}} + \&c.$ , to wit, the number .821,109,079,506, into  $\pi \times r$ , or 1.570,796,326,794, &c.  $\times r$ , the product would be only 1.289, &c.  $\times r$ , which is true to only one place of figures, the second figure being a 2 instead of a 3. This therefore is an eminent proof of the utility of the said differential series.

Art. 24. In an arch of  $90^\circ$  the versed sine is equal to the radius of the circle, that is, according to the foregoing notation,  $v$  is  $= r$ . Therefore by art. 17. together with the foregoing computation, it appears, that the time of the descent of a pendulum, or other heavy body (moving freely from a state of rest by the force of gravity only) through the arch of a whole quadrant of a circle is to the time of the fall through the cor-

respondent perpendicular altitude, or the radius, as 1.311,028,779, &c.  $\times r$  is to  $r$ , or as 1.311,028,779, &c. is to 1.

Art. 25. Hence we may determine the proportion of the time of descent of a pendulum through an arch of  $90^\circ$  to the time of its descent through an infinitely small arch at the bottom of a quadrant, or rather (to speak correctly) to the limit of the time of descent through a very small but finite arch at the bottom of the quadrant, to which the said time continually approaches nearer and nearer as the said small arch is taken less and less, and to which it may be made to approach so nearly, by taking the said small arch sufficiently small, as to differ from it by less than any given quantity. For this latter time, or limit, is known to be to the time of the fall of a heavy body through half the length of the pendulum, or half the radius of the circle, as the semi-circumference of a circle is to its diameter, that is, as the number 1.570,796,326,794, &c. is to 1. But the time of the fall of a heavy body through half the radius of the circle is to the time of the fall through the whole radius as 1 to  $\sqrt{2}$ , or 1.414,213, &c. Therefore, *ex æquo*, the said limit of the time of descent of a pendulum through a very small arch of the circle at the bottom of the quadrant, is to the time of the fall of a heavy body through

the radius of the circle, or the whole length of the pendulum, as 1.570,796, &c. is to 1.414,213, &c. But we have seen in the last article that the time of the fall of a heavy body through the radius of the circle is to the time of descent of a pendulum through the arch of a whole quadrant as 1 to 1.311,028,779, - &c. Therefore the limit of the time of descent of a pendulum through a very small arch at the bottom of the quadrant is to the time of descent through the arch of the whole quadrant as 1.570,796,326, &c.  $\times$  1 is to 1.414,213, &c.  $\times$  1.311,028,779, - &c., or as 1.570,796,326, &c. is to 1.414,213, &c.  $\times$  1.311,028,779, - &c., that is, by art. 21. as 1.570,796,326, &c. is to 1.414,213, &c.  $\times$  1.570,796,326, &c.  $\times$  .834,626,843, - &c., or as 1 to 1.414,213, &c.  $\times$  .834,626,843, - &c., or as 1 to 1.180,340, &c., or, in smaller numbers, as 1 to 1.180, or as 1000 to 1180, or as 100 to 118, or as 50 to 59.

Art. 26. This proportion of the times of the descent of a pendulum through an infinitely small arch at the bottom of the quadrant, and through the arch of the whole quadrant, agrees pretty nearly with that assigned for them by Mr. HUYGENS in the preface to his admirable Treatise on Pendulum-clocks, or *De Horologio Oscillatorio*, which is that of 29 to 34. For 50 is to 59 as 29 is to 34.2, or  $34\frac{1}{5}$ ; or (neglecting the fraction  $\frac{1}{5}$ ) as 29 is to 34; Mr. HUYGENS  
meaning

meaning, probably, in that place, not to express this proportion as accurately as he could, but only as nearly as it could be expressed by small whole numbers. However, the numbers 50 and 59 express this proportion rather more accurately than 29 and 34, and with pretty much the same degree of simplicity, and therefore, upon the whole, are somewhat to be preferred to them.

Art. 27. I have endeavoured to find another differential series, similar to that above described, for the purpose of investigating the value of an infinite series of this form, to wit,  $a + bx + cxx + dx^3 + ex^4 + fx^5 + gx^6 + hx^7 + \&c.$  (in which all the terms are marked with the sign +, or are added to the first term  $a$ ) when the co-efficients  $b, c, d, e, f, g, h, \&c.$  decrease very slowly, and  $x$  is very nearly equal to 1, and the terms of the series decrease consequently so slowly as to make the summation of it in the common way, or by the mere computation and addition of its terms, almost impracticable; but my endeavours have not been attended with success. I may therefore, from my own experience, subscribe to the truth of what is asserted upon this subject by the very learned and ingenious Mr. JAMES STIRLING in his Treatise, intitled, *Summatio Serierum*, p. 17. to wit, that *Series quarum termini sunt per vices negativi et affirmativi, sunt magis tractabiles quam alteræ, ubi de Summatione agitur*; though at first sight one would be apt to imagine the reverse of this proposition to be true.



XI. *Translation of a Passage in Ebn Younes; with some Remarks thereon: in a Letter from the Rev. George Costard, M. A. Vicar of Twickenham, to the Rev. Samuel Horsley, LL.D. Sec. R. S.*

REV. SIR,

Twickenham,  
Jan. 9, 1777.

Read Feb. 13,  
1777.

**H**AVING, by means of the Royal Society, been favoured with a transcript of the Arabic passage in manuscript of EBN YOUNES, in the library at Leyden, I now send you as exact a translation of it as I can. I give it you in Latin, as the former translations of it were in that language; and as the numbers in the manuscript by no means agree with calculations made by modern tables, I have ventured to suppose that they have been somehow or other altered from what they were in the original tables of EBN YOUNES. I have likewise ventured to suppose that the present Leyden copy is a transcript of another copy, which is no very violent supposition, considering how long ago these observations have been made, and how long it is since EBN YOUNES wrote.

I

I have

I have likewise made no scruple to suppose that, however distinct and elegant both the Arabic letters and figures are in later manuscripts, they were not so in those of a more ancient date, so that the one might easily be mistaken for the other, where there is a similarity: and this mistake would be the more easily committed by a person ignorant of the subject he was upon. This probably was the case of all such as were hired by booksellers to transcribe manuscripts for sale; and for this reason, when the transcriber had made any mistake, he would not blot it out for fear of spoiling the sale of his book.

There is an instance of this sort in this very manuscript in the observations of the third eclipse, which is that of the Moon, as you will see in the transcript and translation sent you last year by Mr. SCHULTENS.

If what hath been said be allowed me, as I hope it will not be thought too much, I think I shall be able to account possibly, if not probably, for the differences between the observations as set down in the manuscript, and the result of the calculations by modern tables: a thing which hath not been hitherto attempted, as few who have been versed in astronomy have been acquainted with the Arabic language; and they on the other hand, who have well understood Arabic, have been as little conversant with astronomy.

What

What I have now advanced shall be exemplified under the first eclipse, which is one of the Sun.

In this eclipse, according to the manuscript, at the beginning, the Sun's altitude was more than 15 (١٥) degrees, and less than 16 (١٦); and at the end it was more than 33 degrees (٣٣) and  $\frac{1}{3}$ . But I make the Sun's height at the beginning 30 (٣٠) degrees, and at the end nearly 36 (٣٦). In the manuscript, the digits eclipsed are said to have been 8 (٨, or ٨, as it is sometimes written); but I make them only a little more than 4 (٤), or about  $4\frac{4}{5}$ .

Whether the notation in the original manuscript of EBN YOUNES was in letters or arithmetical figures is uncertain; but most probably it was in the former of these two, as it is in most of the tables now extant, though composed since the admission and use of arithmetical figures. Upon this supposition then, or that they were so in the manuscript from whence the present manuscript was copied, we shall very naturally account for the mistakes we find in it.

Thus for instance, J by some accidental stroke at the bottom, would easily be taken for ٣, as ٣ is sometimes written in manuscripts; and if the perpendicular stroke in the J was made short, as in a table it very well might be, J (30) would naturally be taken for ٣ (15); and,

by the same rule, ٣ (36) would very easily be taken for ١٦ (16); and ٤ (4) the digits eclipsed for ٨ which is 8 in the other form of notation, or ٨ in this.

In the manuscript it is said, that the Sun's altitude at the end, by observation, was a little more than 33 (٣٣) degrees; but this would, in a manuscript ill written, easily be mistaken for ٣٥ (35) or ٣٦ (36).

As to the words, translated by Professor SCHULTENS for Mr. GRISCHOW, "accidit hoc in plano circuli ejus minus quam 7 digiti," I am apt to suspect they are nothing more than some marginal reading crept into the text; that is, somebody seeing the digits eclipsed here made 8 (٨), added, as the Arabic will very well bear, "imo minus quam ٧ (7) or ٨ (8)," as in the other form of notation that figure is sometimes made. The writer of this manuscript, whoever he was, was certainly acquainted with both forms of notation, as he hath made use of both.

This interpretation is at least plausible, and clears up a sentence which greatly perplexed both Mr. GRISCHOW and Dr. BEVIS, and seemed to them quite unintelligible.

The account given by CURTIUS of the second eclipse, which was a solar one, is this:

Anno eodem, die Sabbati, videlicet, 29 mensis Sywal, (numero decimi, qui Paschalis est eorum) eclipsis Solis occupavit digitos  $7\frac{1}{2}$ . In principio, Sol altus ferè  $56^{\circ}$ . In fine, Sol occiduus elevabatur gradibus 26. EX SHICKARDO in MS.

This it is plain is not a translation of the Arabic, for that, as translated by SCHULTENS for Mr. GRISCHOW, and transmitted by him to Dr. BEVIS, is much fuller, and is as follows:

## ECLIPSIS SOLARIS.

Hæc eclipsis extitit die Sabbati, 29 mensis Siewal, anno 367 Hegiræ. Et dies Sabbati hicce ipse est dies 9 mensis Chordadma, anni 348 Jeshlagirdis, et ipse 8 mensis Haziran anni 1289 Alexandri, et ipse est 14 mensis Buna, anni Dioclesiani.

Fuitque maximum quod eclipsatum est de diametro Solis, 5 digiti et  $\frac{1}{2}$  super calculo accuratiore.

Erantque de plano circuli ejus 4 digiti et 10 minuta.

Et erat elevatio Solis, tempore quo eclipsis incepit, secundum oculum  $56^{\circ}$  circiter; et erat integra ejus reapparitio cum esset elevatio ejus 26 graduum, aut circiter; erantque Sol et Luna simul in hac eclipsi, in pro-

pinquo distantiae maximæ a terrâ. Deus scit an calculus hic benè sit positus. Tempus respondet diei 8 Jun. an. Christi 978.

Thus far Mr. SCHULTENS. And here I must observe that, according to him as well as CURTIUS, the Sun's altitude at the beginning was about  $56^{\circ}$ , or in Arabic notation نو; but by computation I make it only about  $47^{\circ} 50'$ . Suppose it were 47 (من); then where the letters are small and ill made, نو and من may easily be mistaken for each other.

The Sun's altitude at the end of this eclipse, according to both CURTIUS and SCHULTENS, was  $26^{\circ}$  (كو); but by calculation I make it a little more than  $36^{\circ}$  (لو). But these figures are so nearly alike that they would easily be mistaken by an ignorant transcriber, and from a manuscript that was ill wrote.

How SCHICKARD, or CURTIUS for him, came to make the digits eclipsed  $7\frac{1}{2}$  I know not: for in the manuscript, as translated by SCHULTENS for Mr. GRISCHOW above, we see they were only  $5\frac{1}{2}$  and that *super calculo accuratiore*, or as the Arabic should have been translated, *juxta calculum accuratiorem*. The meaning of which, I suppose, is that EBN YOUNES had found by calculation that the digits eclipsed would be  $5\frac{1}{2}$ , and that at the time his calculation agreed with his observation; as indeed it did,  
for

for I make them about  $5\frac{3}{5}$ , however widely this differs from  $7\frac{1}{2}$  as in CURTIUS.

When the altitude of the Sun, at the beginning of this eclipse, is said to have been  $56^\circ$  or nearly, *secundum oculum*, it is evident that this was an observation.

When it is added, *erantque de plano circuli ejus 4 digiti et 10 minuta*, in words at length, it seems to have been some interpolation or marginal reading, crept into the text, as another seems to have done under the former eclipse; for if the digits eclipsed here were  $5\frac{1}{2}$ , agreeable both to observation and *accurate calculation*, they must certainly have been more than  $4^\circ 10'$ .

At the conclusion of the former eclipse it was added in the translation, Deus scit an *observatio* fit benè instituta; and here the passage, as translated, concludes with Deus scit an *calculus* hic benè fit positus. But in the Arabic, as I have received it, there is no mention made either of *observation* or *calculation*. The words are the same in both passages, and are only *adjuvante Deo*. The other translations seem only to have been what Mr. GRISCHOW collected from professor SCHULTENS, who, he says, was totally ignorant of astronomical language, as he himself was ignorant of Arabic.

The third is a Lunar eclipse; and the account given of it by CURTIUS, from SCHICKARD, is this:

Anno Christi 979. Anno Hegiræ 368 (qui incepit d. 8 Aug. mihi die 9 Aug. anno Christiano 978) die Jovis, 14 Sywal, Luna fuit orta cum defectu, qui ad  $5\frac{1}{2}$  digitos accrevit, cum extaret supra horizontem gradibus etiam 26 (subaudio finem tunc accidisse). SCHICKARDUS. Qui adjungit, tempus respondere diei 14 Maii, anno Christi 979.

The account of this eclipse, as translated by Professor SCHULTENS for Mr. GRISCHOW, is more particular and intelligible.

Eclipsis Lunæ extitit in mense Sieval (five Xaval) anno 368 Hegiræ. Orta est Luna eclipsata, in nocte cujus aurora fuit feria quinta. Et hæc feria quinta fuit dies 25 mensis Ijar, anni 1290 Alexandri, et ille 20 mensis Baschner (five Pachon) anni 695 Dioclesiani.

Spatium quod eclipsatum fuit de diametro ejus, fuit amplius quam octo digiti, et minus quam novem.

Fuitque hora ortûs ejus proxima horæ oppositionis, secundum fundamenta quibus computare soleo.

Et perfecta est ejus reapparitio (five finis) cum præteriiisset de nocte (i. e. post occasum Solis) circiter hora justa, et quinta horæ pars, prout observavi. Et erat Luna, in hac eclipsi, in propinquo distantie suæ mediæ.

Tempus respondet diei 14 Maii, anno Christi 979.

With



With regard to the time of the opposition, and the Moon's rising at Cairo, there is very little difficulty; for she rose there at  $6^h 48' 10''$ , and the time of opposition was at  $6^h 24' 36''$ .

The end of this eclipse there was at  $7^h 54' 26''$ , and the time of Sun-set was at  $6^h 47' 52''$ . The difference is  $1^h 6' 16''$ , and agrees very well with the manuscript.

The passage, as we have it here in CURTIUS from SCHICKARD, is very obscure. For it seems either to mean that when the digits eclipsed were  $5\frac{1}{2}$  the Moon was  $26^\circ$  high, or that she was  $26^\circ$  high when the eclipse ended. But I take the last to be intended; for the Moon was  $26^\circ$  high at  $7^h 36'$ , and the eclipse ended, as we saw, at  $7^h 54' 26''$ .

But when SCHICKARD or CURTIUS say this *defectus ad*  $5\frac{1}{2}$  *digitos accrevit*, the meaning must be that they amounted only to  $5\frac{1}{2}$ . But this is not true; for according to the manuscript, they were between 8 and 9, and I make them about  $8\frac{3}{5}$ .

I am apt to suspect, therefore, that the transcriber, whoever he was, cast his eyes on the Solar eclipse above, where the digits eclipsed are really  $5\frac{1}{2}$ , and carelessly set them down to this Lunar eclipse where they do not belong. And to confirm this conjecture it must be observed, that after the word *Dioclesian* under this Lunar eclipse, in the Arabic follow *six lines*, which are a repetition.

tition of all that was said under the last solar eclipse, from the same word *Dioclesian* to the end of that observation.

I shall now, in the last place, give you a translation of the Arabic passage intire, omitting however the interpolations mentioned above, which embarrass the whole.

Infit ALI IBN ABDORRAHMAN, IBN ACHMED, IBN YOUNES, IBN ABDOL' AALI.

Imprimis, jam commemoravi eclipses, tam Solares quam Lunares, quas observârunt viri docti; eruditi ii quorum nomina recensui, quasque ad eos retuli, *incipiendo* ab auctoribus libri dicti ALMOMTAHEN, usque ad filios Majour; quin et conjunctiones eorum cum stellis fixis, quas observârunt, et quorum loca commemorârunt, et invenerunt, tempore conjunctionum eorum.

Ipse deinde memorabo eclipses quas observavi, tam Solares quam Lunares, et conjunctiones cum stellis fixis, et quænam fuerunt formæ eorum in conjunctionibus suis. Ut quicumque me sequantur, et indicia habere desiderent, meis utantur, quemadmodum ac ego eorum indiciis et directionibus usus sum, qui ante me observârunt. Deus autem adjutor est.

Eclipsis Solaris erat priore parte diei, feriâ quintâ, die decimo octavo mensis Rabiæ posterioris, anno Hegiræ

367. Et hæc feria quinta erat dies decimus secundus mensis Adzermah, anno Yezdagerdis 346.

Caraffæ adfuimus, in templo ABI GAAFARI ACHMED IBN NASAR Africani, coetus eruditorum, ad hanc elipsin observandam. E quorum numero erat HAROUN IBN MOHAMMED AL GAAFARI, et ABU ABDALLAH AL HOSEIN IBN NASAR Africanus, et ABUL' HOSEIN ALI IBN MAHAR-BACHT Persa, et ABUL' ABAS ACHMED IBN ACHMED AL CHURGHII, et ABU ACHMED ASSUMACHI, et ABU OMAR Scriba.

Ex his, præter alios eruditos cum reliquis observatoribus, nonnulli erant astronomicè docti.

Ipse quoque eodem contendi, unâ cum ABUL' KASEM ABDORRAHMAN IBN HOSEIN, IBN TISAN, AL IDAS, et HOSAN IBN AL DARANI, et HAMED IBN AL HOSEIN.

Et hi omnes initium hujus eclipseos observârunt, quæ, ad sensum meum, apparere incepit sole plus quam gradibus 15, minus autem quam 16 elevato.

Omnes quoque præsentès opinione consentierunt obscurari de diametro ejus circiter 8 digitos.

\* \* \* \* \*

Et splendor ejus perfectè recuperatus est cum elevaretur amplius quam gradibus 33 cum tertiâ ferè parte, prout ipse mensuravi; omnibus qui aderant consentientibus.

In hac eclipsi, Sol et Luna simul erant non longè a distantia suâ proximâ a terrâ. Adjuvante Deo.

#### ECLIPSIS SOLARIS.

Hæc eclipsis incidit in diem Sabbati, diem 29 mensis Shuwal, anno Hegiræ 367. Eratque hic dies Sabbati, dies 9 mensis Chordadmah, anno Yezdagerdis 347, et dies 8 mensis Hazirân, anno Alexandri 1289; et insuper dies 14 mensis Bounah. anno Dioclesiani 694.

Maximum quod obîcuratum est de diametro solis erat  $5\frac{1}{2}$  digiti.

\* \* \* \* \*

Et quando hæc eclipsis, ad oculi aciem, jam incepisse constabat, Solis altitudo erat circiter gradus 56, et lucis ejus restitutio completa est cum altitudo ejus effet 26 gradus, vel circiter.

Erantque Sol et Luna simul, in hac eclipsi, propè distantias suas maximas a terrâ. Adjuvante Deo.

#### ECLIPSIS LUNARIS.

Hæc contigit mense Shuwal, anno Hegiræ 368. Oriebatur Luna, eclipsi jam inchoatâ, nocte cujus Aurora erat feria quinta, quæ feria quinta erat dies 28 mensis Ardbahest, anno Yezdagerdis 348, quæ fuit 18 mensis

Ijar

Ijar, anno æræ Alexandri 1290. Eratque dies 20 mensis Bishnis, anno Dioclesiani 698.

\* \* \* \* \*

Eratque quantitas diametri ejus obscurata, plusquam digiti 8, et minus quam novem. Tempusque ortûs ejus erat propè tempus oppositionis, juxta fundamenta quibus computavi: lucemque plenam recuperavit cum de nocte præteriisset hora circiter æquinoctialis, cum quintâ parte, prout ipse conjectavi.

Eratque Luna in hac eclipsi, haud procul a distantia suâ mediâ a terrâ. Adjuvante Deo.

This I hope will be sufficiently satisfactory.

I am, &c.



XIII. *Observations on the Annual Evaporation at Liverpool in Lancashire; and on Evaporation considered as a Test of the Moisture or Dryness of the Atmosphere. By Dr. Dobson of Liverpool. Communicated by John Fothergill, M. D. F. R. S.*

Read Feb. 13, 1777. **T**HE quantity of rain which falls during the course of the year, is a very uncertain test of the moisture or dryness of any particular season, situation, or climate. There may be little or even no rain, and yet the air be constantly damp and foggy; or there may be heavy rains, with a comparatively dry state of the atmosphere. The same depth of rain will likewise produce different effects on the air, according as it falls upon a flat or hilly country; for large quantities soon quit the hills or high grounds, while smaller quantities have more lasting and powerful effects on a flat country. Much also depends upon the nature of the soil, whether clay or sand, whether firm and compact, or loose and spongy.

Is not evaporation therefore a more accurate test of the moisture or dryness of the atmosphere, than the quantity of rain?

It is well known, that air is an active solvent of water, and that its powers of solution are in proportion to its dryness. It is likewise well known, that in chemical solutions, the action of the *menstruum* is greatly promoted by heat and agitation. If the temperature of the air then, and the state of the winds, be ascertained, which in the present case denote the heat and agitation of the *menstruum*, the evaporation will be the true index of the dryness of any particular season, situation, or climate.

To determine the annual evaporation in the neighbourhood of Liverpool, I procured two well-varnished tin vessels; one of which was to serve the purpose of a rain-gage; the other was to be employed as my evaporating vessel. The evaporating vessel was cylindrical, twelve inches in diameter and six inches deep. The rain-gage consisted of a funnel twelve inches likewise in diameter, the lower end of which was received into the mouth of a large stone-bottle; and, to prevent any evaporation from the bottle, the pipe of the funnel was stopped with a grooved cork. These vessels were placed in the middle of a grass-plot, on a rising ground adjoining and immediately overlooking the town, about seventy-five feet above the level of the sea, and with a free exposure to the Sun, winds, and rain. The cylindrical vessel was filled with water within two inches of the  
top;

top; and if, in consequence of heavy rains, there was danger of its overflowing, a quantity of water was taken out; but if, in consequence of long drought, it sunk lower, a quantity of water was then occasionally added; and these additions or subtractions were carefully registered. At the end of every month, the depth of rain was first calculated; and, as each vessel received the same depth of rain, I had only to examine the quantity of water which had been added to, or taken out of, the evaporating vessel, and the evaporation of the month was ascertained.

The first column of the following tables points out the mean temperature of the air at two in the afternoon. The second, the character of the month with respect to the winds, the number of dots expressing their strength; and, to make this part tolerably accurate, daily observations on the winds were marked down, and the character of the month formed from a general survey of these observations: our winds are Westerly for near two-thirds of the year. The third column points out the evaporation of each month in inches and decimal parts of an inch. The fourth, the depth of rain during each month. And the fifth, the state of the seasons, E being prefixed to the evaporation of the whole three months, R to the rain, and T to the mean temperature. I



It is to be observed, that in making these experiments, 251 grains were allowed for every cubic inch of water; and that three pounds and twelve ounces of water give a depth of one inch on a circular area of twelve inches diameter.

T A B L E I.

A comparative view of the evaporation, rain, winds, and temperature of the air, during the year 1772.

Months.	Temp.	Winds.	Evaporat.	Rain.	Seasons.
January	38	...	1.27	3.26	} E. 4.87 R. 7.23 T. 40.
February	39	....	1.25	2.35	
March	44	...	2.35	1.62	
April	48	..	2.53	1.85	} E. 11.40 R. 8.39 T. 57.
May	57	.	4.25	3.42	
June	67	..	4.62	3.12	
July	70	..	5.53	1.59	} E. 13.20 R. 11.29 T. 66.
August	68	..	5.35	3.65	
September	62	.	2.32	6.05	
October	60	..	3.18	3.42	} E. 6.46 R. 10.48 T. 51.
November	50	...	2.15	4.85	
December	44	..	1.13	2.21	
	54		35.95	37.39	

T A B L E II.

A comparative view of the evaporation, rain, winds, and temperature of the air, during the year 1773.

	Temp.	Winds.	Evaporat.	Rain.	Seasons.
January	44	. . . .	1.85	3.15	} E. 5.74 R. 6.17 T. 45.
February	42½	. . .	1.13	2.37	
March	50	. . .	2.76	0.65	
April	54	. . .	2.89	2.47	} E. 9.34 R. 8.35 T. 58.
May	57	. .	3.79	4.56	
June	64½	.	2.66	1.42	
July	67	. .	4.92	1.32	} E. 14.02 R. 10.08 T. 65.
August	70	.	5.75	2.21	
September	60	. .	3.35	6.55	
October	55	. . .	2.79	4.57	} E. 5.49 R. 15.58 T. 48.
November	47½	. . .	1.15	6.69	
December	41½	. . .	1.55	4.32	
	54½		34.59	40.18	

T A B L E III.

A comparative view of the evaporation, rain, winds, and temperature of the air, during the year 1774.

	Temp.	Winds.	Evaporat.	Rain.	Seasons.
January	37	...	1.38	4.43	} E. 5.92 R. 8.23 T. 44.
February	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	....	1.67	2.42	
March	49 $\frac{2}{3}$	...	2.87	1.38	
April	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	....	4.56	2.23	} E. 12.39 R. 7.14 T. 59.
May	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	...	4.31	1.65	
June	63	..	3.52	3.26	
July	66 $\frac{2}{3}$	...	4.97	2.68	} E. 13.51 R. 10.56 T. 65.
August	67	..	4.52	2.36	
September	61 $\frac{1}{3}$	..	4.02	5.52	
October	57	..	1.95	1.68	} E. 4.82 R. 6.00 T. 48 $\frac{1}{3}$ .
November	46 $\frac{1}{3}$	...	1.12	2.69	
December	41 $\frac{1}{4}$	..	1.75	1.63	
	54		36.64	31.93	

TABLE IV.

A comparative view of the evaporation, rain, winds, and temperature of the air, during the year 1775.

	Temp.	Winds.	Evaporat.	Rain.	Seasons.
January	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	...	1.51	3.21	} E. 7.10 R. 10.28 T. 47 $\frac{1}{2}$ .
February	49	....	3.02	4.62	
March	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	...	2.57	2.45	
April	57 $\frac{3}{8}$	...	3.21	1.01	} E. 15.09 R. 3.98 T. 63.
May	61	...	5.02	0.85	
June	70 $\frac{1}{2}$	...	6.86	2.12	
July	68 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	5.03	5.31	} E. 12.50 R. 12.57 T. 56 $\frac{1}{2}$ .
August	66 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	4.42	4.26	
September	65	..	3.05	4.00	
October	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	...	2.12	7.01	} E. 5.27 R. 13.39 T. 49 $\frac{1}{2}$ .
November	45	..	1.63	3.03	
December	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	..	1.52	3.35	
	54		39.96	40.22	

## OBSERVATIONS.

1. It is evident from these tables, whether we attend to separate months, seasons, or years, that the depth of rain is a very erroneous index of the moisture or dryness of the atmosphere. On comparing the two months July and August of the year 1772, it appears that the tem-

perature of the air, the state of the winds, and the evaporation, were nearly the same during these two months, and yet the rain of August was more than double that of July. The reason why the greater quantity of rain had no more effect than the smaller in adding moisture to the atmosphere, is obvious; for on consulting my register I find, that the rain of August fell in heavy showers, and ran off the ground before it could be evaporated; while that of July, falling in small drizzling showers, gave more time for its evaporation.

Again, the temperature of the air, the state of the winds, and the evaporation, were nearly the same during the first three months of the year 1773, with what they were during the last three months of that year; the state of the air therefore, with respect to moisture and dryness, must have been the same during these two seasons; and yet the depth of rain, in one of these seasons, was much more than double what it was in the other. If we attend to whole years the same observation is confirmed. The rain of 1775 exceeded the rain of 1774 more than eight inches; and hence it might be concluded, that the atmosphere was more moist in 1775 than in 1774; the reverse of this, however, is found to be the fact: for there evaporated from a constant and determinate surface of water in 1775, full three inches more

than evaporated from the same surface of water in 1774. Consequently the dryness of the atmosphere or its power of solution, during the year 1775, exceeded that of 1774.

2. If we take the medium of four years observations it appears, that the annual evaporation at Liverpool amounts to 36.78 inches.

Dr. HALLEY observed at London, that water placed in a close room, where neither the winds or Sun could act upon it, exhaled only eight inches during the whole year. He makes no doubt but that the free access of the winds would have trebled the quantity carried away; and that this again would have been doubled by the assistance of the Sun. Dr. HALLEY, therefore, fixes the annual evaporation of London at 48 inches <sup>(a)</sup>. If this calculation be admitted, it follows, that the annual evaporation of London exceeds the annual evaporation of Liverpool 11 inches; but were the experiments to be made in London, in the same circumstances with those made at Liverpool, it is probable, that this would be found to be more than the real difference.

The learned CRUQUIUS observed at Delft in Holland, that there exhaled from water set in the open air, but in a calm and shady place, about 30 inches; and it is not to

(a) Phil. Trans. N° 212.

be doubted, says Dr. BROWNRIGG in his very valuable work, *The Art of making common Salt*, but that double this quantity, or 60 inches, would have exhaled, had it been placed where the Sun and winds could have had their due effects <sup>(b)</sup>. In another part of this publication, Dr. BROWNRIGG fixes the evaporation of some parts of England at 73.8 inches during the four summer months, May, June, July, and August; and the evaporation of the whole year at upwards of 140 inches <sup>(c)</sup>. These are calculations, however, which do not appear to correspond with experience; for the whole evaporation at Liverpool, instead of 140 inches, was only 36.78 inches. The evaporation likewise of the four summer months, on a medium of four years, instead of 73 inches, was only 18.88 inches.

3. Dr. HALES calculates the greatest annual evaporation from the surface of the earth in England, even that from a surface of hop-ground, at 6.66 inches <sup>(d)</sup>. If we compare this with the annual evaporation from a surface of water as determined by experiment, we find, that the latter exceeds the former about 30 inches; and that the annual evaporation from a surface of water, is to the annual evaporation from the surface of the earth in this part of England, nearly as 36 to 6, or as 6 to 1.

(b) Page 185.

(c) P. 189.

(d) Veg. Stat. vol. I. p. 55, 56.

4. On comparing the depth of rain with the annual evaporation of this part of Lancashire we find, that more falls in rain than is raised in vapour, even though the whole were a surface of water; for the rain is to the evaporation as 37.43 inches to 36.78 inches: and we farther find, that the quantity exhaled from the surface of the earth is little more than a sixth part of what descends in rain; we must therefore have very large supplies from other regions, from the surrounding sea, and from the ocean of warmer climates. Hence we see, why our South and South-west winds are so often accompanied with rain; for as the air sweeps along the warmer latitudes, it involves a large proportion of moisture, which is constantly and copiously exhaling from the ocean; and this moisture being retained in a state of solution till it reaches the colder climates, is then either collected in clouds or immediately precipitated in rain, according to the different conditions of the atmosphere.

These foreign supplies, however, are uniformly restored to the sources from which they were derived: for that proportion of rain which rises not in vapour, after moistening and refreshing the earth, forms springs, brooks, and rivers, and is thus perpetually returning to the ocean whence it was taken; so truly philosophical are the words of the preacher when speaking of this vast circulation:



circulation: "All the rivers run into the sea, yet the sea  
"is not full: unto the place from whence the rivers  
"come, thither they return again."

5. About a century ago, the ingenious Mr. TOWNLEY, of Townley in this county, made some accurate observations on the depth of rain which fell annually in the neighbourhood of the hills which divide Lancashire and Yorkshire; and on taking a medium of fifteen years, he determines it to be 41.516 inches<sup>(e)</sup>. The depth of rain, therefore, at Townley exceeds the depth of rain at Liverpool about four inches. This is probably, however, less than the real difference; for there was a source of error in Mr. TOWNLEY's experiments with which the world was not at that time acquainted. Mr. TOWNLEY's rain-gage was fixed full ten yards above the surface of the earth<sup>(f)</sup>; which circumstance, according to some later observations, makes a very material difference in the result of the experiment<sup>(g)</sup>. Were the observations to be repeated at Townley, and the rain-gage placed upon the ground, there can be no doubt but that the depth of rain would considerably exceed 41.516 inches; for I find from a great number of experiments, made during the last three

(e) Phil. Trans. abridged by Lowthorp, vol. II. p. 46. (f) Ibid.

(g) Phil. Trans. vol. LIX. art. 47.

years with two vessels of equal dimensions, one placed on the ground, and the other eighteen yards higher on the battlement of the hospital; that the quantity received in the lower vessel exceeds that in the higher more than one-third and less than one-half.

6. An ingenious friend, on perusing these observations, asked, "Whether the fact of evaporation going on  
"equally well in an exhausted receiver, was not an unfurmountable objection to that theory concerning evaporation, which supposes a chemical solution of water  
"in air?" With a view to ascertain this fact I made the following experiment.

Two china faucers, each containing three ounces of water, were accurately weighed. One of them was placed in the open air; the quicksilver in the thermometer stood during the experiment between  $48^{\circ}$  and  $50^{\circ}$ , the day tolerably clear with a moderate breeze. The other was put under the receiver of an air-pump; the air was exhausted, and the pistons occasionally worked, to draw off any of the water which might be supposed to be converted into vapour. After four hours the faucers were again accurately weighed; that in the open air had lost one drachm and eight grains; the weight of the other was not sensibly diminished.

From

From this experiment it appears, that air is a chemical solvent of water, and as such is undoubtedly to be considered as one cause of the evaporation of water. Heat is another cause of evaporation, and when raised to a sufficient degree may produce this effect without the intervention of air, and the evaporation consequently go on copiously in an exhausted receiver, agreeably to the experiments of the ingenious Dr. IRVING<sup>(i)</sup>.

The following observations are added as a farther illustration of this subject. Water may exist in air in three different states. 1. In a state of perfect solution. 2. In a state of beginning precipitation. Or, 3. Completely precipitated, and falling in drops of rain.

In the first instance, where the water is in a state of perfect solution, the air is clear, dry, heavy, and its powers of solution still active, though it already contains a considerable proportion of water. In the second, the air becomes moist, foggy, its powers of solution are diminished, and it becomes lighter in proportion as its water is deposited. It is a singular and well-attested fact, that it never rains in the kingdom of Peru; but that during part of the year the atmosphere is constantly obscured with

(i) Phipps's Voyage to the North Pole, p. 211.

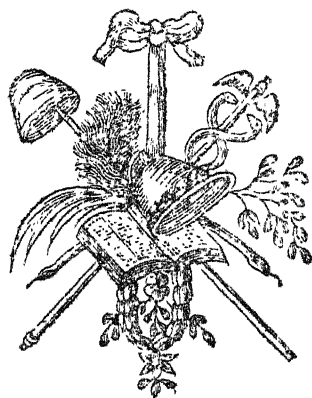
vapours, and the whole country involved in what they call *Garuas*, or thick fogs <sup>(i)</sup>.

It is not necessary to point out the causes which thus dispose the air to deposit its dissolved water; nor to consider with what bodies air hath a stronger affinity than with water; neither to inquire how far the electrical fluid is engaged in the process. It is sufficient to observe, that so long as these causes have a general action on the air, they diminish its power of solution, and give a damp and foggy state of the atmosphere; that when they operate for a considerable proportion of the year, they produce a moist climate; and that when they more generally do not, and the air retains its moisture in a state of perfect solution, the climate is dry. Consequently, that the moisture or dryness of a climate, do not so much depend upon the absolute quantity of water which is contained in the air, as upon the air being in a state of perfect or imperfect solution. During long continued summer droughts, a very large proportion of water is dissolved in the air; notwithstanding this, the air is still dry, and continues to be so as but as the water remains in a state of perfect solution; long no sooner are the powers of solution diminished, than what was before a dry, now becomes a moist climate.

(i) D'Ulloa's Voyage to South America, vol. II. p. 69.

In the third instance, the dissolved water may be either slowly precipitated and fall in drizzling rain, or it may be more powerfully discharged in brisk rain; or there may be partial and sudden precipitations from particular regions, while other parts of the atmosphere still retain their water in a state of perfect solution. Heavy thunder-showers are the most remarkable instances of partial, sudden, and copious precipitations.

Liverpool, Nov. 20, 1776.



XIV. *An Account of Persons who could not distinguish Colours.* By Mr. Joseph Huddart, in a Letter to the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F. R. S.

S I R,

London,  
Jan. 15, 1777.

Read Feb. 13,  
1777.

WHEN I had the pleasure of waiting on you last winter, I had hopes before now of giving you a more perfect account of the peculiarity of vision which I then mentioned to you, in a person of my acquaintance in the North: however, if I give you now the best I am able, I persuade myself you will pardon the delay.

I promised to procure you a written account from the person himself, but this I was unfortunately disappointed in, by his dying suddenly of a pleurisy a short time after my return to the country.

You will recollect I told you that this person lived at Mary-port in Cumberland, near which place, *viz.* at Altonby, I myself live, and having known him about ten years have had frequent opportunities of conversing with him.

His name was HARRIS, by trade a shoe-maker. I had often heard from others that he could discern the form and magnitude of all objects very distinctly, but could not distinguish colours. This report having excited my curiosity, I conversed with him frequently on the subject. The account he gave was this: That he had reason to believe other persons saw something in objects which he could not see; that their language seemed to mark qualities with confidence and precision, which he could only guess at with hesitation, and frequently with error. His first suspicion of this arose when he was about four years old. Having by accident found in the street a child's stocking, he carried it to a neighbouring house to inquire for the owner: he observed the people called it a *red* stocking, though he did not understand why they gave it that denomination, as he himself thought it completely described by being called *a stocking*. The circumstance, however, remained in his memory, and together with subsequent observations led him to the knowledge of his defect. As the idea of colours is among the first that enters the mind, it may perhaps seem extraordinary that he did not observe his want of it still earlier. This, however, may in some measure be accounted for from the circumstance of his family being quakers, among whom.

whom a general uniformity of colours is known to prevail.

He observed also that, when young, other children could discern cherries on a tree by some pretended difference of colour, though he could only distinguish them from the leaves by their difference of size and shape. He observed also, that by means of this difference of colour they could see the cherries at a greater distance than he could, though he could see other objects at as great a distance as they; that is, where the sight was not assisted by the colour. Large objects he could see as well as other persons; and even the smaller ones if they were not enveloped in other things, as in the case of cherries among the leaves.

I believe he could never do more than guess the name of any colour; yet he could distinguish white from black, or black from any light or bright colour. Dove or straw-colour he called white, and different colours he frequently called by the same name: yet he could discern a difference between them when placed together. In general, colours of an equal degree of brightness, however they might otherwise differ, he frequently confounded together. Yet a striped ribbon he could distinguish from a plain one; but he could not tell what the colours were with any tolerable exactness. Dark colours



in general he often mistook for black, but never imagined white to be a dark colour, nor a dark to be a white colour.

He was an intelligent man, and very desirous of understanding the nature of light and colours, for which end he had attended a course of lectures in natural philosophy.

He had two brothers in the same circumstances as to sight; and two other brothers and sisters who, as well as their parents, had nothing of this defect.

One of the first mentioned brothers, who is now living, is master of a trading vessel belonging to Maryport. I met with him in December 1776, at Dublin, and took the opportunity of conversing with him. I wished to try his capacity to distinguish the colours in a prism, but not having one by me, I asked him, Whether he had ever seen a rain-bow? He replied, He had often, and could distinguish the different colours; meaning only, that it was composed of different colours, for he could not tell what they were.

I then procured and shewed him a piece of ribbon: he immediately, without any difficulty, pronounced it a striped and not a plain ribbon. He then attempted to name the different stripes: the several stripes of white he uniformly, and without hesitation, called white: the four black stripes he was deceived in, for three of them  
he

he thought brown, though they were exactly of the same shade with the other, which he properly called black. He spoke, however, with diffidence as to all those stripes; and it must be owned, the black was not very distinct: the light green he called yellow; but he was not very positive: he said, "I think this is what you call yellow." The middle stripe, which had a slight tinge of red, he called a sort of blue. But he was most of all deceived by the orange colour; of this he spoke very confidently, saying, "This is the colour of grass; this is green." I also shewed him a great variety of ribbons, the colour of which he sometimes named rightly, and sometimes as differently as possible from the true colours.

I asked him, Whether he imagined it possible for all the various colours he saw, to be mere difference of light and shade; whether he thought they could be various degrees between white and black; and that all colours could be composed of these two mixtures only? With some hesitation he replied, No, he did imagine there was some other difference.

I could not conveniently procure from this person an account in writing; but I have given his own words, having set them down in writing immediately. Besides, as this conversation happened only the 10th of last month

months, it is still fresh in my memory. I have endeavoured to give a faithful account of this matter, and not to render it more wonderful than it really is.

It is proper to add, that the experiment of the striped ribbon was made in the day-time, and in a good light.

I am, SIR, &c.



XV. *A new Theory of the Rotatory Motion of Bodies affected by Forces disturbing such Motion.* By Mr. John Landen, F. R. S.

Read Feb. 20, 1777. **I** AM induced to consider this paper as not unworthy the notice of this Society, through a persuasion that the theory herein contained will conduce to the improvement of science, by enabling the reader to form a true idea, and accordingly to make a computation of the motion (or change) of the axis about which a body having a rotatory motion will turn, or have a tendency to turn, upon being affected by a force disturbing its rotation; particularly of the motion of the earth's axis arising from the attraction of the Sun and Moon on the protuberant matter of the earth above its greatest inscribed sphere: which compound motion, I conceive, has not been rightly explained by any one of the eminent mathematicians whose writings on the same subject have come to my hands. Whether in this essay I have really succeeded better than other writers who have attempted an explanation of such motion, I submit to gentlemen well versed in mechanics to determine.

I. Fig. 1. Let the sphere *ADBE*, whose radius is *r*, revolve uniformly about the diameter *ACB* as an axis, with the angular velocity *c*, measured at *D* or *E*, the motion being according to the order of the letters *DGEH* in the section at right angles to *ACB*, fig. 2.; and, whilst it is so revolving, let the pole *A* be impelled by some instantaneous percussive force to turn about the diameter *DCE*, from *A* towards *H*, with the velocity *w*. It is proposed to find the new axis about which the sphere will revolve after receiving such impulse.

Calling *al*, parallel to *DC*, *x*; *cl* will be  $=\sqrt{r^2-x^2}$ : the velocity of the point *a* (about *ACB*) before the impulse on *A* will be  $=\frac{cx}{r}$ ; and the velocity (about *DCE*) given to the same point (*a*) by the said impulse will be  $=\frac{w\sqrt{r^2-x^2}}{r}$ . Which velocities of the point *a* being in contrary directions, if it be so situated that they be equal, then, one destroying the other, that point will stop and become one of the new poles sought, about which the former poles *A* and *B* will revolve with the velocity *w*; and the points *D* and *E* will revolve with the same velocity (*c*) as before the perturbing impulse on the point *A*; but instead of describing the great circle *DGEH*, their motion will be about the new axis *ab*; about which they (as well as the points *A* and *B*) will describe lesser circles parallel

to the great circle  $de$ , in which the points  $d$  and  $e$  ( $de$  being at right angles to  $ab$ ) will revolve about the same axis ( $ab$ ) with the velocity  $\sqrt{c^2 + w^2}$ . Which being denoted by  $e$ , and  $m$  and  $n$  being put for the sine and cosine of the angle  $ACa$  to the radius 1,  $me$  will be  $= w$ ,  $ne = c$ , and consequently  $mne^2 = cw$ .

Now taking  $\frac{cx}{r} = \frac{w\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}{r}$ , in order to find that new axis  $ab$ , we have from that equation  $x = \frac{rw}{\sqrt{c^2 + w^2}} = \frac{rw}{e} = al$ .

Moreover it is obvious, that if a spheroid, a cylinder, or any other body, whose center of gravity is  $c$  and proper axis  $ACB$ , were, whilst revolving about that axis with the same angular velocity ( $c$ ), to receive such an impulse as instantly to give the point  $A$  the angular velocity  $w$  about  $DCE$ ; the axis about which that spheroid, cylinder, or other body, immediately after the impulse, would revolve, or would have a tendency to revolve, would be the same line  $ab$ .

The great circle  $de$  (fig. 1.) and any other great circle so situated with respect to the axis of any revolving sphere, I shall denominate the *mid-circle*.

2. In the manner above described the poles of the sphere are by the instantaneous impulse on the point  $A$  instantly changed from  $A$  and  $B$  to  $a$  and  $b$ . But if, instead of such impulse, a continued attractive force  $F$  (like that of gravity)

vity) acted at A fig. 3. and at the new poles  $a', a''$ , &c. as they become such by a successive change caused by such continued action of the force F urging the sphere at every instant to revolve about the diameter  $de'$ , or  $de''$ , &c. of the contemporary mid-circle, the new pole ( $a', a''$ , &c.) would not instantly be at a finite distance from the primitive pole A, but some finite time would be requisite, that by such successive change, the pole might be varied to a finite distance from A: and the force F continuing invariable, the velocity ( $v$ ) wherewith the pole changed its place would be expressed by  $\frac{x}{t}$ ,  $t$  being the time elapsed whilst the pole is varying from A to  $a$ , and  $x$  the length of the arc A  $a$ . Therefore the velocity wherewith the pole will change its place during such action of the force F will be expressed in the same manner as the velocity ( $v$ ) of a body moving uniformly from A to  $a$  in the time  $t$  may be expressed; that is, in both cases  $v$  will be  $= \frac{x}{t}$ . But there is a material difference between the motion of a body so moving from A to  $a$  and the change of place of the pole  $a', a''$ , &c. the former is permanent, and will continue to carry the body forward without the action of any force whatever; whereas the latter will instantly cease, and the axis will keep its position, if the force

force  $F$  ceases to act thereon; like as the varying direction of a projectile near the earth's surface would immediately cease to change, if the force of gravity ceased to act.

It is observable, that whilst the force  $F$  acts, and the revolving sphere, in consequence of such action, every moment takes a new axis, the angular motion about the axis will continue invariable; the action of such force only altering the axis without altering the angular velocity of the sphere about it: like as the direction of a moving body is altered, without altering the velocity thereof, by an attractive force continually acting on it in a direction at right angles to that in which the body is moving. And if ever the force  $F$  shall cease to act, the sphere will instantly revolve with its primitive velocity ( $c$ ) about the axis it then may have been brought to take by the preaction of that force.

The new axis, about which the sphere has such tendency to revolve at any instant during the action of the force  $F$ , I shall call the *momentary axis*; and the poles thereof the *momentary poles*.

3. From the equation  $\frac{c^2}{r} = \frac{w\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}{r}$  (art. 1.) we have

$\frac{w}{x} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$ . Now if a continued attractive force ( $F$ ) act during the time  $t$  as above-mentioned, instead of the



instantaneous percussive force at A, we, according to the doctrine of fluxions, must, instead of  $w$ , take  $\dot{w}$ , or its equal  $F \dot{t}$ , and  $\dot{x}$  instead of  $x$ , in the expression  $\frac{w}{x}$ ; therefore, in this case, we have  $\frac{\dot{w}}{\dot{x}} = \frac{F \dot{t}}{\dot{x}} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$ . Whence, putting  $\dot{x}$  for the arc ( $A'a$ , or  $A''a$ , &c.) whose sine is  $x$ , and writing  $\dot{x}$  for its equal  $\frac{r \dot{x}}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$ , we get  $\frac{r F \dot{t}}{\dot{x}} = c$ , or  $\dot{x} = \frac{r F \dot{t}}{c}$ .

Hence  $v$  denoting the velocity wherewith the momentary pole ( $a'$ ,  $a''$ , &c.) changes its place during the action of the accelerative force  $F$ , we have  $\dot{x} = v \dot{t} = \frac{r F \dot{t}}{c}$ , and consequently  $v = \frac{r F}{c}$ .

4. The value of  $v$  may also be determined in the following manner (fig. 4.). Conceive a very thin string (without weight) to have one of its ends fastened to a fixed point  $l$  and the other to a heavy particle of matter  $m$ ; also conceive such particle so to revolve with the velocity  $e$ , about the line  $lm$ , that a certain accelerative force  $F$  (like that of gravity referred to a certain direction) continually acting on the said particle  $m$ , in a direction at right angles both to the string  $lm$  and to the tangent to the curve in which  $m$  is moving, the string shall describe a conical surface. Then  $lm$  being denoted by

by  $r$ , and  $mo$ , perpendicular to  $ln$ , by  $q$ ;  $\frac{e^2}{q}$ , the centrifugal force urging  $m$  in the direction  $om$ , will be to  $F$  as  $r$  to  $\sqrt{r^2 - q^2} = lo$ . Therefore  $F$  must be  $= \frac{e^2 \sqrt{r^2 - q^2}}{r q}$ . Now if, whilst  $m$  is so revolving, the force  $F$  ceases acting, the said particle ( $m$ ) will, it is obvious, immediately proceed to describe a great circle of the sphere whose radius is  $r$  and center  $l$ , of which great circle one of the poles will be situated in a lesser circle parallel to, and  $90^\circ$  distant from, that described by  $m$  during such action of the said force; which pole, during such action, will change its place in the said lesser circle in which it will at any time be found with a velocity ( $v$ ) which will be to  $e$  as ( $s$ ) the radius of the last mentioned circle to  $q$ . But  $s$  will be  $= \sqrt{r^2 - q^2}$ ; therefore we have  $v : e :: \sqrt{r^2 - q^2} : q$ , and  $\frac{\sqrt{r^2 - q^2}}{q} = \frac{v}{e}$ . Consequently  $F = \frac{e^2 \sqrt{r^2 - q^2}}{r q}$  will be  $= \frac{e^2}{r} \times \frac{v}{e} = \frac{e v}{r}$ , and  $v = \frac{r F}{e}$ .

Let now  $m$  be a point on the surface of a sphere whose center is  $l$ , and radius  $lm = r$ ; and let the sphere revolve about an axis so that  $m$  shall describe a great circle with the velocity  $e$ . If then such a motive force begins to act on the sphere, that, continuing its action, the point  $m$  shall always be urged by the invariable accelerative force  $F$  to move in a direction at right angles to the ray  $lm$  and

to the tangent to the curve which  $m$  will describe; that point it is obvious will, in consequence of the action of that force, describe a lesser circle of the same radius ( $q$ ) as that described by the particle  $m$  when fastened to a string and acted on by the force  $F$  as above-mentioned; and the center of the sphere being always considered as at rest, one of the momentary poles of the sphere will describe a circle whose radius will be  $= \sqrt{r^2 - q^2}$  parallel to, and  $90^\circ$  distant from, that described by the point  $m$ . For if the said force were to cease acting, that point of the sphere would describe a great circle, as would the particle  $m$  at the string in the like case; and therefore both the said particle and the point  $m$  of the sphere at every instant having the same tendency, and being acted on by equal accelerative forces, the effect will be the same with respect to the motion of each. Consequently,  $v$  being put to denote the velocity wherewith the momentary pole changes its place in the circle which it will describe whilst the motive force producing the accelerative force  $F$  acts on  $m$  as just now mentioned,  $v$  will be  $= \frac{rF}{e}$ , the same as in the preceding article,  $e$  here denoting that velocity which we there denoted by  $c$ .

5. Referring the point of action of the perturbing force to the mid-circle we have not hitherto considered

that point as varied with a greater or less velocity than ( $e$ ) that of the point  $m$ ; that is, with reference to such circle we have always considered the point  $m$  as the point of action. But it is obvious, that, *ceteris paribus*, the point of action with respect to the mid-circle (which point we will now denote by  $q$ ) may be varied with a velocity greater or less than  $e$ ; and that, *ceteris paribus*, the velocity ( $v$ ) of the momentary pole will be the same with what velocity soever ( $q$ ) the point of action of the force  $F$  be varied; the direction in which that force acts being always at right angles to the ray ( $lq$ ) from the center of the sphere, and to the tangent to the curve described by ( $q$ ) such point of action.

Yet, although  $v$  continues the same whether, *ceteris paribus*, ( $u$ ) the velocity of the point  $q$  be greater, equal to, or less than  $e$ , the immoveable circle in which the momentary pole will be found will not continue the same; that circle being greater, equal to, or less than the circle whose radius is  $\sqrt{r^2 - q^2}$  according as  $u$  is less, equal to, or greater than  $e$ , as will be made more evident by what follows.

6. Fig. 5. Let  $\dot{p}$  (in the great circle  $R\dot{p}Q\dot{q}T$ ) be one of the poles of the axis about which the sphere  $RSTV$ , whose radius is  $r$ , is revolving (according to the order of the letters  $v\dot{q}s$ ) with the angular velocity  $e$ , measured at

the distance  $r$  from the axis; and whilst it is so revolving let the said pole be urged to turn about a diameter of the mid-circle  $v'q's$  towards  $q'$ , by an accelerative force  $F$ , and let such force continue to act on the successive new poles  $p''$ ,  $p'''$ , &c. as they become such, always urging the sphere to turn about a diameter of the contemporary mid-circle, whilst the direction in which such perturbing force acts is regulated in the following manner.

Conceive the said revolving sphere to be surrounded by an immoveable concave sphere of the same radius  $r$ . Then the momentary pole ( $p'$ ,  $p''$ ,  $p'''$ , &c.) will always be found in some curve  $p'p''p'''$  &c. in the said concave sphere, and in some curve  $p''p'''p''''$  &c. on the revolving sphere; which last mentioned curve will continually touch and roll along the other curve  $p'p''p'''$  &c. on the immoveable sphere, the force  $F$  and the direction in which it acts varying in any manner whatever. Let  $F$  be invariable; then, it is obvious, the two curves so touching each other will be circles; and if great circles  $p'q$ ,  $p''q$ ,  $p'''q$ , &c. be described on the surface of the immoveable sphere whose planes shall be at right angles to the plane of the circle  $p'p''p'''$  &c. the points  $q'$ ,  $q''$ ,  $q'''$ , &c. therein,

therein, each  $90^\circ$  distant from  $P, P, P, \&c.$  respectively, will be in a circle ( $q q q \&c.$ ) parallel to the said circle  $P P P \&c.$  Now as a regulation to the direction in which the force  $F$  shall urge the momentary pole, let that direction be always a tangent to the great circle passing through that pole and the correspondent point  $q, q, \text{ or } q, \&c.$  whilst the arcs  $q q, q q, \&c.$  are to the arcs  $P P, P P, \&c.$  respectively in the constant ratio of  $u$  to  $v$ .

The direction in which the force  $F$  acts being so regulated, it is obvious that the radius of the circle  $P P P \&c.$  being denoted by  $b$ , the radius of the circle  $q q q \&c.$  will be  $= \sqrt{r^2 - b^2}$ , the distance of these parallel circles being  $90^\circ$ . Therefore their peripheries being as the velocities ( $v$  and  $u$ ) with which they are described, their radii ( $b$  and  $\sqrt{r^2 - b^2}$ ) will be in the ratio of the said velocities; that is  $v : u :: b : \sqrt{r^2 - b^2}$ ; whence,  $\frac{u}{v}$  being  $= \frac{\sqrt{r^2 - b^2}}{b}$ ,

$b$ , the radius of the circle  $P P P \&c.$  is found  $= \frac{r v}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}$   
 $= \frac{r}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{u^2}{v^2}}}$ ; and  $\sqrt{r^2 - b^2}$  the radius of the circle  $q q q \&c.$   
 $\&c. = \frac{r u}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}} = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{v^2}{u^2}}}$ ,  $v$  being  $= \frac{r F}{e}$ , the velocity where-

with

with the momentary pole  $\overset{''}{p}, \overset{'''}{p}, \&c.$  changes its place.

Consequently, if  $\overset{'}{P}R$  be an arc in the said immoveable concave sphere whose sine is  $\frac{rv}{\sqrt{u^2+v^2}} = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1+\frac{e^2 u^2}{r^2 F^2}}}$ , the great

circles  $\overset{'}{q}P, \overset{''}{q}P, \overset{'''}{q}P, \&c.$  will intersect each other at the point  $R$ .

7. Moreover, the force  $F$  being invariable and acting as expressed in the preceding article, the primitive pole  $\overset{'}{p}$  and the momentary poles  $\overset{''}{p}, \overset{'''}{p}, \&c.$  will all be found in a circle  $\overset{''''}{p}pp \&c.$  described upon the surface of the revolving sphere, as observed in that article; which circle, during the action of the force of  $F$ , will (as is also observed in the said article) always touch and roll along the immoveable circle ( $\overset{''''}{P}PP \&c.$ ) whose radius we have just now found  $= \frac{rv}{\sqrt{u^2+v^2}} = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1+\frac{e^2 u^2}{r^2 F^2}}}$ ; the point of contact being always the momentary pole.

Let the sine of the arc  $\overset{'}{P}Q$  of the great circle  $\overset{'}{R}PQ\overset{'}{Q}T$  in the revolving sphere be equal to  $k$ , the radius of the said circle  $\overset{''''}{p}pp \&c.$  then will the point  $Q$  and its opposite point ( $o$ ) in the surface of the said sphere, during the action of the force  $F$ , describe circles in the surrounding;

rounding immoveable concave sphere parallel to ( $\overset{''''}{P} \overset{''''}{P} \overset{''''}{P}$  &c.) the circle described by the momentary pole  $\overset{''}{p}$ ,  $\overset{''}{p}$ , &c. in the same concave sphere. And such point Q and its opposite point (o) being continually urged by the force F in directions at right angles to the tangents to the arcs they describe, their velocity will continue the same as before the action of the said force commenced; which velocity, and the radius of the said circle  $\overset{''}{p} \overset{''}{p} \overset{''''}{p}$  &c. will be determined by the following computation.

That radius being denoted by  $k$ , we have  $r : k :: e : \frac{ek}{r}$ , the velocity of the point Q before the action of the force F commenced; and  $b : v :: k : \frac{kv}{b}$ , the velocity of the same point (Q) during the action of that force,  $\kappa$  being put for the sine of the arc QR; therefore the velocity of Q continuing the same during the action of F as before, we have  $\frac{ek}{r} = \frac{kv}{b}$ . But  $\kappa$  is the sine of the sum of the arcs

$\overset{'}{R} \overset{'}{P}$ ,  $\overset{'}{P} \overset{'}{Q}$ , whose sines are  $b$  and  $k$  respectively; therefore  $\frac{b\sqrt{r^2-k^2}}{r} + \frac{k\sqrt{r^2-b^2}}{r}$  will be  $= \kappa$ ; and by substitution we get

$$\frac{ek}{r} = \frac{v\sqrt{r^2-k^2}}{r} + \frac{kv\sqrt{r^2-b^2}}{r} = \frac{v\sqrt{r^2-k^2}}{r} + \frac{ku}{r}, \frac{\sqrt{r^2-b^2}}{b} \text{ being } = \frac{u}{v}$$

by the preceding article. Hence we find  $k =$

$rv$



$\frac{r v}{\sqrt{e-u|^2+v^2}}$ ; and it follows, that  $\frac{e v}{\sqrt{e-u|^2+v^2}}$  ( $= \frac{e^2}{r}$ ) will be equal to the velocity of the point Q, and likewise of its opposite point (o) in the surface of the sphere. It also follows, that K, the radius of each of the circles described by those points, during the action of the force F will be equal to  $\frac{r e v}{\sqrt{u^2+v^2} \times \sqrt{e-u|^2+v^2}}$ .

By what is done it appears, that during the action of the force F, the motion of the revolving sphere will be regulated by the circle  $\overset{''''}{p} \overset{''''}{p} \overset{''''}{p}$  &c. thereon (whose radius is  $\frac{r v}{\sqrt{e-u|^2+v^2}} = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{e^2 e-u|^2}{r^2 F^2}}}$ ) continually touching and rol-

ling along the immoveable circle  $\overset{''''}{P} \overset{''''}{P} \overset{''''}{P}$  &c. (whose radius is  $\frac{r v}{\sqrt{u^2+v^2}} = \frac{r}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{e^2 u^2}{r^2 F^2}}}$ ) so that the velocity of the point of contact be  $= v = \frac{r F}{e}$ . Considering the point Q as

always urged from the points  $\overset{''}{P}, \overset{''}{P}, \overset{''}{P}$ , &c. and consequently its opposite point (o) towards those points, it is necessary to observe, that according as  $u$  is less or greater than  $e$ , the arc PQ (whose sine is  $\frac{r v}{\sqrt{e-u|^2+v^2}}$ ) will be less or greater than  $90^\circ$ ; and the point (o) opposite to Q on the surface of the sphere will accordingly be at a greater or less distance than  $90^\circ$  from P.

If

If  $u$  be negative the arc  $PR$  whose sine is  $\frac{rv}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2}}$  will be greater than  $90^\circ$ .

8. The motion of the sphere according to the regulation in the preceding article is one motion compounded of the primitive motion of the sphere and the motion generated by the action of the force  $F$ . But conceiving  $\left(\frac{ev}{\sqrt{e-u^2} + v^2}\right)$  the velocity of the point  $Q$  to arise from an impulse given to it whilst the sphere revolved about an axis of which  $Q$  was an immoveable pole before such impulse, and about which the mid-circle corresponding to that primitive axis revolved with the angular velocity  $\frac{e \cdot \overline{eS} \cdot u}{\sqrt{e-u^2} + v^2}^{(a)}$ ; and considering that the force  $F$ , continually acting at right angles to the momentary direction of the point  $Q$  and to the plane of the said mid-circle, only serves to alter the position of the said primitive axis; we may, by the help of what is done above, explain the motion which the sphere will have, during the action of the force  $F$ , so as to retain in our ideas the two primitive motions (one about the axis  $QO$ , and the other about a diameter at right angles to that axis) as remaining distinct and unaltered.

(a) Denoting this by  $e$  and the velocity of  $Q$  by  $d$ ,  $\sqrt{e^2 + d^2}$  is  $= e$ , agreeable to art. 1.

Fig. 6. Let ED be a great circle on the revolving sphere, of which Q is a pole, and let a smaller circle DL parallel to (MQ) that which we have found will be described by the point Q, be drawn on the immoveable concave sphere so as to touch that great circle in the point (D) where the great circle QPR cuts it; the radius of which lesser circle will be  $(= \sqrt{r^2 - K^2}) = \frac{r v^2 \sin r u \cdot \overline{e-u}}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2} \times \sqrt{\overline{e-u}^2 + v^2}}$ .

Then the revolving sphere, during the action of the force F, will so move, that the first mentioned great circle (ED) shall continually touch and roll along the said lesser circle DL, the velocity of the point of contact (along that circle) being  $= \frac{v^2 \sin u \cdot \overline{e-u}}{\sqrt{\overline{e-u}^2 + v^2}}^{(b)}$ , and the sphere at the same time turning about the axis of which Q is a pole with the primitive angular velocity  $\frac{\overline{e \cdot e \sin u}}{\sqrt{\overline{e-u}^2 + v^2}}$ .

Thus the primitive motion about the axis of which Q is a pole is preserved distinct, whilst that pole proceeds describing a circle, whose radius is  $\frac{r e v}{\sqrt{u^2 + v^2} \times \sqrt{\overline{e-u}^2 + v^2}}$ , with the velocity  $\frac{e v}{\sqrt{\overline{e-u}^2 + v^2}}$  which we supposed given to it.

(b) This is to the velocity of the point Q as  $\sqrt{r^2 - K^2}$  to K; that is, as the radii of the arcs described.

It is observable, that the last mentioned velocity will, according to this regulation of the motion, be to the primitive angular velocity about the axis of which Q is a pole, as  $v$  to  $e-u$ , or as  $v$  to  $u-e$ , according as  $u$  is less or greater than  $e$ ; that is, according as the arc PQ is less or greater than  $90^\circ$ .

9. From what has been said it follows, that denoting the two primitive angular velocities  $\frac{e \cdot e \cdot u}{\sqrt{e-u}^2 + v^2}$  and  $\frac{e v}{\sqrt{e-u}^2 + v^2}$  (specified in the preceding article) by  $c$  and  $d$  respectively, the radius (fig. 5.) of the circle  $\overset{'''''}{p} \overset{'''''}{p} \overset{'''''}{p}$  &c. (or sine of the arc  $\overset{''}{PQ} = \overset{''}{PQ}$ , &c.) will be  $= \frac{dr}{e}$ ; the radius of the circle  $\overset{'''''}{P} \overset{'''''}{P} \overset{'''''}{P}$  &c. (or sine of the arc  $\overset{''}{PR} = \overset{''}{PR}$ , &c.)  $= \frac{dr^2 F}{e \sqrt{d^2 e^2 + 2cd r F + r^2 F^2}}$ : a great circle passing through the primitive poles o and Q, on the revolving sphere, will turn from the position ORQ with the velocity  $\frac{r F}{d}$  measured at the mid-circle, or with the velocity  $\frac{dr F}{\sqrt{d^2 e^2 + 2cd r F + r^2 F^2}}$  measured at the fixed point R; whilst those poles describe, with the velocity  $d$ , circles parallel to  $\overset{'''''}{P} \overset{'''''}{P} \overset{'''''}{P}$  &c. the radius ( $x$ ) of each of the circles (fig. 6.) so described being

being  $= \frac{d^2 r}{\sqrt{a^2 e^2 - 2cd r_F + r^2 F^2}}$ : the radius  $(\sqrt{r^2 - K^2})$  of the circle DL will be  $= \frac{r \times cd + r_F}{\sqrt{a^2 e^2 - 2cd r_F + r^2 F^2}}$ ; and the velocity  $\left( \frac{v^2 \sin \theta \cdot e - h}{\sqrt{e^2 - h^2} + v^2} \right)$  along the said circle DL  $= c + \frac{r_F}{d}$ : the upper or lower of the double signs taking place according as  $u (= e \mp \frac{cr_F}{de})$  is less or greater than  $e$ ; that is, according as the arc PQ (whose sine is  $= \frac{dr}{e}$ ) is less or greater than  $90^\circ$ .

10. As an instance of the use of the preceding conclusions, I will now apply them in the solution of a very interesting problem, which I have not before seen solved.

*Suppose a given spheroid, whilst revolving uniformly about its proper axis, with a given angular velocity, to be suddenly urged by some percussive force to turn, with some given angular velocity, about a diameter of its equator; it is proposed to explain the rotatory motion of the spheroid consequent to the impulse so received.*

Fig. 7, 8. Let DOEQ be the spheroid, whose femi-axis CO = CQ is  $= b$ , and equatorial radius CD = CE =  $r$ ; and supposing it before the impulse to revolve about its proper axis OQ with the angular velocity  $c$ , measured at the distance  $r$  from the axis, let the poles (O and Q) be suddenly urged by some percussive force to turn about a

diameter of the equator of the spheroid, with the angular velocity  $d$ , likewise measured at the distance  $r$  from that diameter. Upon receiving such impulse, the spheroid will take a new axis of motion, which will be a momentary one; suppose such new axis to be  $p c \pi^{(c)}$ . Then the particles of the spheroid being urged (or having a tendency) to turn about that axis with the angular velocity  $\sqrt{c^2 + d^2}$ , (which we will denote by  $e$ ) their joint centrifugal force will so urge the spheroid to turn about that diameter of the equator which shall be at right angles to the momentary axis  $p c \pi$ , that the accelerative force of the point  $D$  of the equator to turn it about the said diameter according to the order of the letters  $D Q E$  will (as appears by what is proved in art. 1. and in the Appendix annexed hereto) be  $= \frac{c a}{r} \times \frac{r^2 - b^2}{r^2 + b^2}$  or  $\frac{c d}{r} \times \frac{b^2 - r^2}{r^2 + b^2}$  according as  $b$  is less or greater than  $r$ : and it follows from hence and what is proved in art. 3. and 4. that  $v$ , the angular velocity (at the distance  $r$  from  $c$ ) with which the momentary pole  $p$  will change its place, will accordingly be  $= \frac{c d}{e} \times \frac{r^2 - b^2}{r^2 + b^2}$  or  $\frac{c d}{e} \times \frac{b^2 - r^2}{r^2 + b^2}$ .

(c) To find the position of this axis see art. 1. by which the sine of the angle  $c c p$  (to the radius  $r$ ) is found  $= \frac{dr}{e}$ .

Moreover, referring to our observation in art. 8. let  $u-e$  be to  $\frac{cd}{e} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}$  (the value of  $v$ ) as  $c$  to  $d$ ,  $u$  being greater than  $e$ ; or let  $e-u$  be to  $\frac{cd}{e} \times \frac{b^2-r^2}{r^2+b^2}$  as  $c$  to  $d$ ,  $u$  being less than  $e$ : whence, in both cases, we shall have the same expression  $\left(\frac{c^2}{e} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}\right)$  for the value of  $u-e$ ; and consequently  $u$ , in both cases, will be  $= e + \frac{c^2}{e} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}$ .

Conceive now a spherical surface without matter, having the same center and radius as the equator DE, to be carried about with the revolving spheroid; and suppose a sphere, whose radius is  $r$ , to revolve about an axis  $pc\pi$  with the angular velocity  $e$ , and, whilst it is so revolving, let an accelerative force (F) equal to  $\frac{cd}{r} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}$  or  $\frac{cd}{r} \times \frac{b^2-r^2}{r^2+b^2}$ , according as  $b$  is less or greater than  $r$ , urge the pole  $p$ , and the successive momentary poles as they become such, to turn about a diameter of the contemporary mid-circle in the manner expressed in art. 6.  $u$  being to  $v$  as  $e + \frac{c^2}{e} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}$  to  $\frac{cd}{e} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}$  or as  $e + \frac{c^2}{e} \times \frac{r^2-b^2}{r^2+b^2}$  to  $\frac{cd}{e} \times \frac{b^2-r^2}{r^2+b^2}$ , according as  $b$  is less, or greater than  $r$ . Then will the motion of the surface of this sphere be exactly the same as the motion of the said spherical surface carried about with the revolving spheroid.

spheroid after receiving the impulse of the percussive force. Therefore, having reference to our conclusions in the preceding articles, we, by substitution, readily obtain solution to our problem.

By substituting properly  $\frac{cd}{r} \times \frac{r^2 - b^2}{r^2 + b^2}$  or  $\frac{cd}{r} \times \frac{b^2 - r^2}{r^2 + b^2}$  for F, we find,

$$\frac{d^2 r}{\sqrt{d^2 e^2 \mp 2cd r F + r^2 F^2}} = \frac{dr}{c} \times \frac{r^2 + b^2}{\sqrt{4r^4 + r^2 + b^2}^2 \times \frac{d^2}{c^2}},$$

$$\frac{r \times c d \mp r F}{\sqrt{d^2 e^2 \mp 2cd r F + r^2 F^2}} = \frac{2r^2}{\sqrt{4r^4 + r^2 + b^2}^2 \times \frac{d^2}{c^2}},$$

$$\text{and } c \mp \frac{r F}{d} = \frac{2r^2 c}{r^2 + b^2}.$$

Which equations, respect being had to the conclusions in art. 8. and 9. indicate that, whether  $b$  be less or greater than  $r$ , if an immoveable circle DL, whose radius is =

$\frac{2r^2}{\sqrt{4r^4 + r^2 + b^2}^2 \times \frac{d^2}{c^2}}$ , be conceived to be described in a plane

inclined to the plane of the equator of the spheroid (before the impulse) in an angle whose sine (to the radius  $r$ )

is  $= \frac{dr}{c} \times \frac{r^2 + b^2}{\sqrt{4r^4 + r^2 + b^2}^2 \times \frac{d^2}{c^2}}$ , so that the said circle touch

the said equator in the point D in the section  $OPDQE$ ; the spheroid after the impulse will so revolve, that its  
equator



equator will always touch and roll along the said immoveable circle (DL), the velocity of the point of contact (along that circle) being  $= \frac{2r^2c}{r^2+b^2}$ , whilst the spheroid turns about its proper axis (OQ) with the primitive angular velocity  $c$ , and the poles o and Q (by the said rolling of the equator) describe circles (whose radii are each  $= \frac{bd}{c} \times \frac{r^2+b^2}{\sqrt{4r^4+r^2+b^2} \times \frac{d^2}{c^2}} \bigg)$  parallel to the said circle

DL, with the angular velocity  $d$  (or their proper velocity  $\frac{bd}{r}$ ) which we supposed given to them by the impulse<sup>(d)</sup>. Thus the motion of the spheroid consequent to the impulse appears to be remarkably regular.

And in the very same manner may be explained the motion of a cylinder, whose primitive motion about its proper axis may be disturbed by some percussive force in like manner as we supposed the spheroid disturbed; only (instead of the former substitution for F) substituting for the accelerative force arising from the centrifugal force of the particles of the revolving cylinder its proper value  $\frac{cd}{r} \times \frac{3r^2-4b^2}{3r^2+4b^2}$  (computed in our Appendix) and afterwards proceeding as we have done with regard to the spheroid,

(d) Other ways of solving the problem are also suggested by the preceding articles.

$b$  denoting half the length of the cylinder, and  $r$  the radius of any section at right angles to its proper axis.

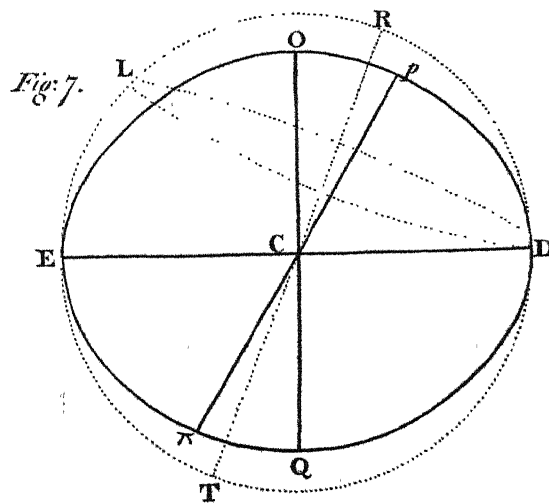
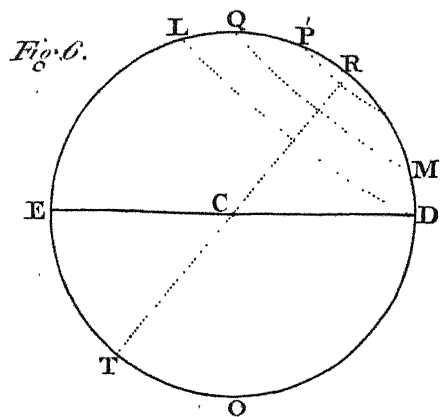
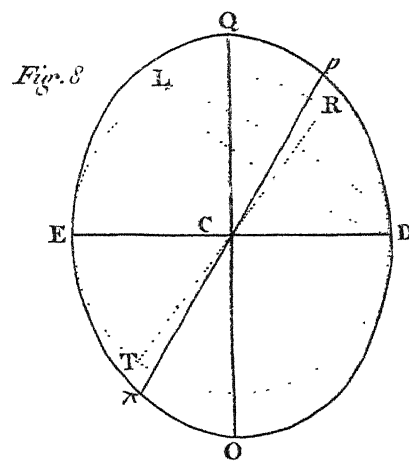
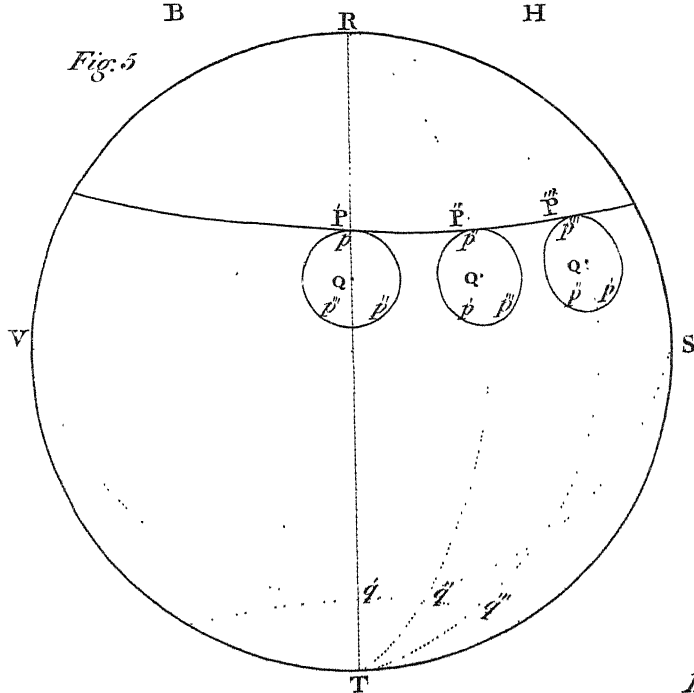
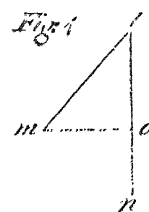
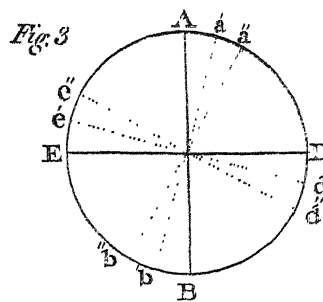
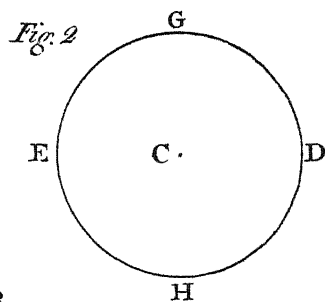
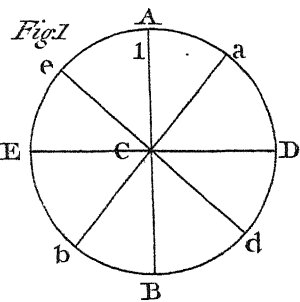
Seeing that  $\left( \frac{cd}{r} \times \frac{3r^2 - 4b^2}{3r^2 + 4b^2} \right)$  the expression for the said accelerative force respecting the cylinder vanishes when  $b$  is  $= \frac{3^{\frac{1}{2}}}{2}r$ , it is manifest that the cylinder in that case will (with respect to its own particles) undisturbedly revolve about any axis whatever passing through its center of gravity, as will a sphere. Which remarkable property of that particular cylinder I believe has not before been taken notice of.

There are, I am aware, bodies of other forms having the like property.

The preceding articles lead us to consider the motion of the earth's axis in a light, I presume, more clear and satisfactory than any in which it has before been considered; but I must, for want of leisure, defer making the application till some future opportunity; only observing here, that by what is done above it appears, that from the action of the Sun and Moon on the earth its axis has a diurnal motion, which I have no where seen explained. Which motion is not much unlike that of the axis of the revolving spheroid just now considered, when  $(2b)$  this last mentioned axis is many times longer than  $(2r)$









the equatorial diameter of the said spheroid, and  $\frac{d}{c}$  very small.

## A P P E N D I X.

*Shewing how the joint centrifugal force of the particles of a spheroid or cylinder, having a rotatory motion about any momentary axis, is computed.*

1. FIG. 9. Let  $p$  be a particle of matter firmly connected with the plane  $DOEFQG$ , in which the line  $OCQ$  is situated; and  $pq$  being a perpendicular from  $p$  to the said plane, let the distance  $pq$  be denoted by  $u$ ; also, the line  $ql$  being at right angles to  $OCQ$ , let the distance  $pl$  be denoted by  $b$ . Then, the said plane with the particle  $p$  being made to revolve about  $OCQ$  as an axis, with the angular velocity  $e$  measured at the distance  $a$  from the said axis, the velocity of  $p$  will be  $= \frac{be}{a}$ , and its centrifugal force from  $l$  will (by a well-known theorem) be  $= \frac{be^2}{a^2}$  to make it  $a^2$  the expression being  $\frac{be^2}{a^2} \times p$ . Whence, by resolving that force into two others, one in the direction  $qp$ , and the other in a direction parallel to  $lq$ , it appears that the force urging  $p$  from the plane  $DOEFQG$  will be  $= \frac{ue^2}{a^2} \times p$ , let the distance  $lq$  be what it will.

2. The particle  $p$  being connected with the plane DOEFQG as mentioned in the preceding article, and the distance  $cl$  being denoted by  $u$ ; if  $p$  be urged directly from the said plane by a force  $fu \times p$ , the efficacy of that force to turn the said plane about the line HCI, therein drawn at right angles to  $ocq$ , will (by the property of the lever) be equivalent to the force  $\frac{fu \times p}{g}$  acting on the said line  $ocq$  at right angles to the said plane at the distance  $g$  from the point  $c$ .

Moreover it is obvious, that, *cæteris paribus*, the efficacy will be the same let the distance of  $q$  from  $l$  be what it will.

Fig. 10. Let  $q$  coincide with  $l$ ; and let  $ck$  be a line in the plane  $clp$  continued (which plane will be at right angles to the plane DOEFQG); also,  $pk$  being at right angles to  $ck$ , let those lines  $pk$  and  $ck$  be denoted by  $w$  and  $x$  respectively. Then the sine and cosine of the angle  $kco$  to the radius  $r$ , being respectively denoted by  $m$  and  $n$ , the force  $\frac{fu \times p}{g}$  will be  $= \frac{f \times p}{g} \times \frac{m \times n \times w^2 - x^2 + m^2 - n^2 \times wx}{r}$ . Consequently, if each particle of any solid body, through which a line HCI and a plain DOEIFQGH may be conceived to pass, be urged from that plane by a force expressed by  $fu \times p$  as above; the force which, acting on the line  $ocq$  at the distance  $g$  from  $c$ , would be equivalent to the efficacy



efficacy of all the forces acting on the several particles of that body to turn the same about the line HCl will be obtained by computing the sum of all the forces

$\frac{f \times p}{g} \times mn \times \overline{w^2 - x^2 + m^2 - n^2} \times wx$  acting on the said body.

The computation of such equivalent force will in most cases be abridged by observing that, if  $p$  be continued to  $p''$  so that  $kp'' = kp$ , the efficacy of the force on the particle  $p''$ , to turn the body about the line HCl in opposition to the force on the particle  $p$ , will be represented by

the equivalent force  $\frac{f \times p''}{g} \times mn \times \overline{x^2 - w^2 + m^2 - n^2} \times wx$  acting on the line ocq at the distance  $g$  from c; and that therefore the efficacy of the two forces on  $p$  and  $p''$ , to turn the body about HCl, will be represented by the equivalent force  $\frac{2f \times p}{g} \times mn \times \overline{w^2 - x^2}$  acting on the line ocq, at right angles to the plane DOEIFQGH, at the distance  $g$  from c.

3. Fig. 11, 12. If the body be a cylinder, a spheroid, or the like, and its proper axis be situated in the line ck, the ordinates corresponding the *abscissæ*  $kp$ ,  $kp''$ , in the circular section bi whose center is k, will each be parallel to that diameter passing through c, about which the body will be urged to turn; and each of those ordinates will be  $= \sqrt{y^2 - w^2}$ ,  $y$  being the radius of such section.

Therefore, writing  $2\sqrt{y^2 - w^2}$  instead of  $p$ , it follows that

$\frac{4Af}{g} \times mn \times \sqrt{\frac{y^4}{4} - x^2 y^2}$ , the whole fluent of  $\frac{4f \times \sqrt{y^2 - w^2}}{g} \times$

$mn \times \sqrt{w^2 - x^2} \times w$ , generated  $w (=kp=k'p)$  from 0 becomes equal to the radius  $y$  (both  $x$  and  $y$  being considered as invariable) will express the value of the force which, acting on the line  $ocq$  at the distance  $g$  from  $c$ , would be equivalent to the force of all the particles in the said section, whose thickness is denoted by the indefinitely small quantity  $x$ ; the distance  $ck$  being denoted by  $x$ , and  $A$  being put for (.78539) the area of a quadrant of a circle whose radius is 1.

4. Fig. 11. In the cylinder whose length is  $2b$  and diameter  $2r$ ;  $y$  being  $r$ ,  $\frac{y^4}{4} - x^2 y^2$  will be  $= r^2 \times \frac{r^2}{4} - x^2$ : consequently, the fluent of  $\frac{r^2}{4} - x^2 \times x$ , generated whilst  $x$  from 0 becomes  $= b$ , being  $\frac{br^2}{4} - \frac{b^3}{3}$ , we have  $\frac{8Af r^2}{g} \times mn \times \frac{br^2}{4} - \frac{b^3}{3} = \frac{f m n}{12g} \times \sqrt{3r^2 - 4b^2} \times M$  for the force which, acting as above at the distance  $g$  from (c) the center of gravity of the cylinder, would be equivalent to the efficacy of the forces acting as above on all the particles of the cylinder to turn it about a diameter passing through  $c$ ,  $M$  being the mass or content of the cylinder.

5. Fig. 12. In the spheroid whose proper axis is  $2b$  and equatorial diameter  $2r$ ,  $y^2$  being  $= \frac{r^2}{b^2} \times \overline{b^2 - x^2}$ ,  $\frac{y^4}{4} - x^2 y^2$  will be  $= r^2 \times \frac{r^2}{4} - \frac{r^2 x^2}{2b^2} + \frac{r^2 x^4}{4b^4} - x^2 + \frac{x^4}{b^2}$ : consequently, the fluent of  $\frac{r^2 \dot{x}}{4} - \frac{r^2 x^2 \dot{x}}{2b^2} + \frac{r^2 x^4 \dot{x}}{4b^4} - x^2 \dot{x} + \frac{x^4 \dot{x}}{b^2}$ , generated whilst  $x$  from 0 becomes  $= b$ , being  $\frac{r^2 b}{4} - \frac{r^2 b}{6} + \frac{r^2 b}{20} - \frac{b^3}{3} + \frac{b^3}{5} = \frac{2}{15} \times \overline{r^2 b - b^3}$ , we have  $\frac{16 A f r^2}{15 g} \times m n \times \overline{r^2 b - b^3} = \frac{f m n}{5 g} \times \overline{r^2 - b^2} \times s$  for the force which, acting at the distance  $g$  from  $c$  the center of the spheroid, would be equivalent to the efficacy of the forces acting as above on all the particles of the spheroid. to turn it about a diameter of its equator,  $s$  being the mass or content of the spheroid.

These equivalent forces are distinguished by the name of motive forces; the correspondent accelerative forces are computed in the following articles.

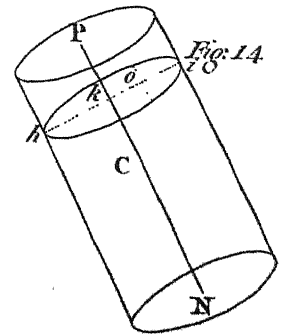
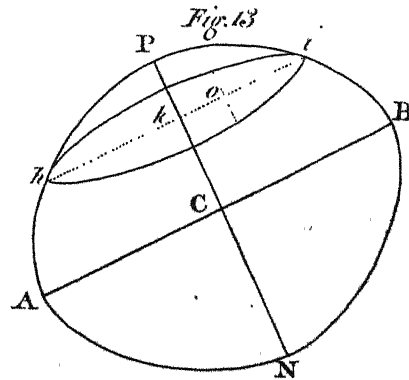
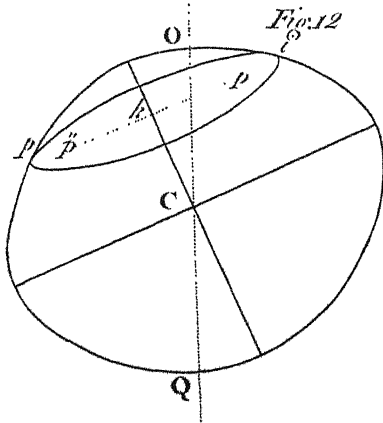
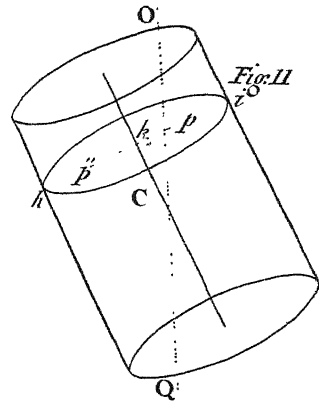
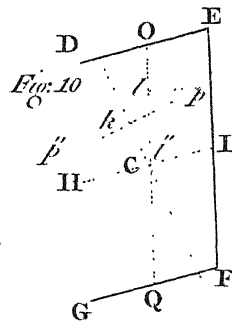
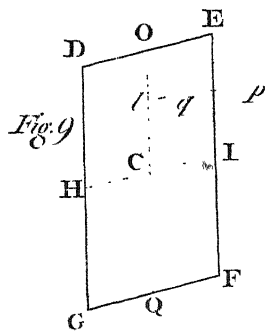
6. Fig. 13. The body being a spheroid whose center is  $c$ , and whose proper axis  $PN$  is  $= 2b$  and equatorial diameter  $AB = 2r$ ; let  $F$  be the accelerative force of a particle at the distance  $g$  from the axis about which the body is urged to turn, which axis is supposed to be a diameter of its equator. Denote  $ck$  by  $x$ ;  $ki$  by  $y$ ; and let the *abscissa*  $ko$  and its correspondent ordinate (parallel to the last mentioned axis) in the circle whose radius is  $ki$  be denoted

denoted by  $s$  and  $t$  respectively. Then, considering the body as urged to turn about that diameter of its equator which is at right angles to  $AB$ , the accelerative force of every particle in the said ordinate will be  $= \frac{\sqrt{s^2 + x^2}}{g} \times F$ , and the motive force of all the particles in the same ordinate will be  $= \frac{\sqrt{s^2 + x^2}}{g} \times F \cdot z \cdot s = \frac{\sqrt{s^2 + x^2}}{g} \times F s \sqrt{y^2 - s^2}$ ; to which (by the property of the lever) a motive force  $= \frac{s^2 + x^2}{g^2} \times F s \sqrt{y^2 - s^2}$  acting at the distance  $g$  from the center at right angles to a ray therefrom would be equivalent. Therefore, considering  $x$  and  $y$  as invariable, and  $s$  only as variable,  $\frac{4Fz}{g^2} \times$  the whole fluent of  $s \sqrt{y^2 - s^2} \times \sqrt{s^2 + x^2}$  will denote a force which, acting at the distance  $g$  from  $c$ , would be equivalent to the motive force of all the particles in the section  $bi$  whose radius is  $ki$  and thickness  $x$ . Which fluent is  $= Ay^2 \times \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{y^2}{4}} = \frac{Ar^2}{b^2} \times \sqrt{b^2 - x^2} \times x^2 + \frac{r}{4b^2} \times \sqrt{b^2 - x^2}$ . Consequently  $\frac{8Ar^2F}{b^2g^2} \times$  the whole fluent of  $x \times \sqrt{b^2 - x^2} \times \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{r^2}{4b^2}} \times \sqrt{b^2 - x^2}$  will denote a motive force which, acting at the distance  $g$  from  $c$  at right angles to a ray therefrom, would be equivalent to the whole motive force urging the spheroid to turn as above mentioned. Such equivalent

force











force will therefore be  $= \frac{16 A r^2 F}{15 g^2} \times \overline{r^4 b + r^2 b^3} = \frac{F}{5 g^2} \times \overline{r^2 + b^2} \times s$ ;

and this being put  $= \frac{f m n}{5 g} \times \overline{r^2 - b^2} \times s$  (the value of the

same force found in art. 5.) we find  $F = f g m n \times \frac{r^2 - b^2}{r^2 + b^2}$ ;

which will be  $= \frac{g m n e^2}{a^2} \times \frac{r^2 - b^2}{r^2 + b^2}$ , if  $f$  be  $= \frac{e^2}{a^2}$ , its value computed in art. 1.

Or  $F$  will be denoted by  $\frac{c d}{r} \times \frac{r^2 - b^2}{r^2 + b^2}$ ; if  $r$  be to  $e$  as  $m$  to  $d$ , and as  $n$  to  $c$ ; and  $a$  and  $g$  be each  $= r$ .

7. Fig. 14. The body being a cylinder whose center of gravity is in  $c$ , and whose proper axis  $PN$  is  $2b$  and diameter  $2r$ ; the accelerative force ( $F$ ) at the distance  $g$  from  $c$ , will in like manner be found  $= \frac{g m n e^2}{a^2} \times \frac{3r^2 - 4b^2}{3r^2 + 4b^2}$ ; the cylinder being considered as urged to turn about a diameter passing through  $c$ .

If  $r : e :: m : d :: n : c$ , and  $a$  and  $g$  be each  $= r$ ,  $F$  will be  $= \frac{c d}{r} \times \frac{3r^2 - 4b^2}{3r^2 + 4b^2}$ .



XVI. *Directions for making the best Composition for the Metals of reflecting Telescopes; together with a Description of the Process for grinding, polishing, and giving the great Speculum the true parabolic Curve. By Mr. John Mudge; communicated by Alexander Aubert, Esq. F. R. S.*

Read Feb. 27. March 6. and 13.  
1777.

AS the method of casting, grinding, and polishing the specula of reflecting telescopes, by Mess. MOLYNEUX and HADLEY, which is published in Dr. SMITH's Optics, is what the workmen have generally followed, and is consequently well known to them; I shall in the following account avoid a repetition of the general directions there given, and only remark upon such parts of that process which I think are essentially defective, and supply them by a method of my own, which, from long and repeated trials, I have found completely to answer the purpose. After, therefore, referring to the above account for the manner of making the gages, patterns, the method of casting, as well as a great many other particulars, I will begin with

*The best composition for the specula of reflecting telescopes.*

The perfection of the metal of which the speculum should be made consists in its hardness, whiteness, and compactness; for upon these properties the reflective powers and durability of the speculum depend. And first of the hardness and whiteness of the metal. There are various compositions recommended in SMITH'S Optics, all which have however their several defects. Three parts copper and one part and one-fourth of tin will make, he says, a very hard white metal; but it is liable to be porous. This, however, is an imperfection which I shall presently shew the method of preventing; but the permanent fault of it, and which I have myself experienced, is, that it is not hard enough. The speculum of a reflecting telescope ought to have the utmost possible hardness, compatible with its being operated upon by the tool.

It is to be observed, that ever so small a quantity of tin added to melted copper destroys its perfect malleability, and at the same time produces a metal whiter and harder than copper. As the quantity of tin is increased, suppose to a fifth or fourth part, the metal becomes whiter, still harder, and consequently more friable. If the quantity of tin be further increased to a third of the

whole composition, it will then have its utmost whiteness; but will be rendered at the same time so exceedingly hard and brittle, that the finest washed emery upon lead or brass will not cut it without breaking up its surface; and the common blue stones used in grinding the speculum, will not touch it. Mr. JACKSON (some time since dead) a mathematical-instrument-maker, and a most excellent workman, told me, that the tin was increased to the above proportion in his metals; but that they were so exceedingly hard, that it cost him an infinite deal of pains, and a journey of two hundred miles, to find out a stone of sufficient hardness to cut it, and whose texture at the same time was fine enough not to injure its surface. I have seen several of his finished metals; they were indeed perfectly hard and white; but the kind of stone with which he ground them he kept a secret.

After many experiments with various proportions of tin and copper, by gradually increasing the former, I at last found that fourteen ounces and an half of grain-tin to two pounds of good Swedish copper, made a beautiful white and very hard metal; so hard indeed, that the stones would but barely cut it, and washed emery on brass or tin but just grind the surface without breaking it up; whereas the proportion of tin being increased by the addition of only another half ounce, the former inconvenience

venience immediately took place. This therefore is the *maximum* in point of hardness.

Thus much of the two first considerations, the hardness and whiteness of the metal; the next, and indeed the most essential, property is its compactness, or its being without pores.

This composition (though complete in the former respects) was, as well as Dr. SMITH's, subject every now and then to be porous; sometimes, indeed, I succeeded in casting a single metal, or perhaps two or three, without this imperfection; at other times, and most frequently indeed, they were attended with this defect, without my being at all able to form a probable conjecture at the cause of my success or disappointment. The pores were so very small that they were not discoverable when the metal had received a good face and figure upon the hones, nor till the last and highest polish had been given; and then it frequently appeared as if dusted over with millions of microscopic pores, which were exceedingly prejudicial in two respects; for first, they became in time a lodgment for a moisture which tarnished the surface; and secondly, on polishing the speculum, the putty necessarily rounded off the edges of the pores, so as to spoil a great part of the metal, by the loss of as much light and

sharpness in the image as there were defective points of reflection in the metal.

Besides the trouble of a great number of experiments, in order to get rid of this mischief, and to ascertain the cause to which it was owing, there was this additional inconvenience attending it, *viz.* that the fault was not discovered, as was observed before, till a great deal of trouble had been taken in grinding and even polishing the metal, the whole of which was rendered useless by the mortifying discovery of this defect.

I was extricated at last from this difficulty, and in some measure by accident. Having one day made a great number of experiments, and having melted down all the good copper I had or could procure; though puzzled and fatigued, yet not caring to give it up, I recollected that I had some metal which was reserved out of curiosity, and was a part of one the bells of St. Andrew's which had been re-cast. Expecting, however, very little from this gross and uncertain composition, I was nevertheless determined to see what could be made of it by enriching the composition with a little fresh tin. Accordingly casting a metal with it, it turned out perfectly free from pores, and in every respect as fine a metal as ever I saw.

I could not at first conceive to what this success was owing; but at last I hit upon the real cause of that defect,

which had given me so much embarrassment and trouble during a course of near a hundred experiments, and in consequence thereof fell upon a method which ever after prevented it.

I had hitherto always melted the copper first, and when it was sufficiently fused, I used to add the proportional quantity of tin; and as soon as the two were mixed, and the scoria taken off, the metal was poured into the moulds. I began to consider that putty was calcined tin, and strongly suspected, that the excessive heat which the copper necessarily undergoes before fusion, was sufficient to reduce part of the tin to this state of calcination, which therefore might fly off from the composition in the form of putty, at the time the metal was poured into the flasks.

Upon this idea, after I had furnished myself with some more Swedish copper and grain-tin (both which I had always before used) I melted the copper, and having added the tin as usual to it, cast the whole into an ingot: this was, as I expected, porous. I then melted it again, and as in this mixed state it did not acquire half the heat which was before necessary to melt the copper alone, so it was not sufficient to calcine the tin; the speculum was then perfectly close, and free from this fault; nor did I ever after, in a single instance, meet with the above mentioned imperfection.

All that is necessary, therefore, to be done to procure a metal which shall be white, as hard as it can be wrought, and perfectly compact, is to melt two pounds of Swedish copper, and when so melted, to add fourteen ounces and a half of grain-tin to it; then, having taken off the scoria, to cast it into an ingot. This metal must be a second time melted to cast the speculum; but as it will fuse in this compound state with a small heat, and therefore will not calcine the tin into putty, it should be poured off as soon as it is melted, giving it no more heat than is absolutely necessary. It is to be observed, however, that the same metal, by frequent melting, loses something of its hardness and whiteness: when this is the case, it becomes necessary to enrich the metal by the addition of a little tin, perhaps in the proportion of half an ounce to a pound. And indeed when the metal is first made, if instead of adding the fourteen ounces and a half of tin to the two pounds of melted copper, about one ounce of the tin were to be reserved and added to it in the succeeding melting, before it is cast off into the moulds, the composition would be the more beautiful, and the grain of it much finer: this I know by experience to be the case.

The best method for giving the melted metal a good surface is this: the moment before it is poured off, throw into the crucible a spoonful of charcoal-dust; immediately



diately after which the metal must be stirred with a wooden spatula, and poured into the moulds.

I wish I may not be considered as tedious in the above detail; but as this business caused me a great deal of trouble, I was willing to give some account of the means by which I was freed from this difficulty ever after. Perhaps, indeed, the whole of this process may be unnecessary, as many years since, I communicated this composition, and I believe at the same time the method of preventing the pores, to the late Mr. PETER COLLISON, a member of the Royal Society; and likewise two or three years since, at the desire of my brother, to Mr. MICHELL. Although it be possible, therefore, that this method is generally known, yet, as I have frequently of late seen specula with this defect, and observed metals of some of Mr. SHORT's telescopes which are not quite so perfect as could be wished (though they are all exquisitely figured) I was willing by this publication wholly to remove any future embarrassment of this sort, and to furnish workmen with an excellent composition for their metals. And would the Royal Society be pleased to honour the process with a place in their records, I know of no other method so proper to give this, as well as the following information, a general notoriety.

The metal being cast, there will be no occasion for the complicated apparatus directed by Dr. SMITH, for grinding

grinding and polishing it. Four tools are all that are necessary, *viz.* the rough grinder to work off the rough face of the metal; a brass convex grinder, on which the metal is to receive its spherical figure; a bed of hones which is to perfect that figure, and to give the metal a fine smooth face; and a concave tool or bruifer, with which both the brass grinder, and the hones are to be formed. A polisher may be considered as an additional tool; but as the brass grinder is used for this purpose, and its pitchy surface is expeditiously, and without difficulty formed by the bruifer, the apparatus is therefore not enlarged.

*Of rough grinding the speculum.*

The tool by which the rough surface of the metal is rendered smooth and fit for the hones, is best made of lead, stiffened with about a fifth or sixth part of tin. This tool should be at least a third more in diameter than the metal which is to be ground; and for one of any size, not less than an inch thick. It may be cemented upon a block of wood, in order to raise it higher from the bench.

This leaden tool being cast, it must be fixed in the lathe, and turned as true as it is possible, by the gage, to the figure of the intended speculum, making a hole or pit in  
the

the middle, as a lodgment for the emery, of about an inch diameter for a metal of four inches: when this is done, deep grooves must be cut across its surface with a graver, in the manner represented in fig. 1. These grooves will serve to lodge the emery, and by their means the tool will cut a great deal faster. There is no occasion to fear any alteration in the convexity of this tool by working the metal upon it, for the emery will bed itself in the lead, and so far arm the surface of it, that it will preserve its figure and cut the metal very fast. Any kind of low handle, fixed on the back of the metal with soft cement, will be sufficient; but it should cover two-thirds of its back to prevent its bending. This way of working will cut the metal faster, and with more truth, than the method described by Dr. SMITH; for should the surface and rough parts be attempted to be ground off by a common grind-stone by hand, though you did it as near the gage as possible, yet the metal would be so much out of truth when applied to the succeeding tool, that no time would be saved by it. I used to employ a common labourer for this purpose, who soon acquired such a dexterity at working upon this tool, that in two hours time he would give a metal of four inches diameter so good a face and figure as even to fit it for the hones. When all the sand-holes and irregularities on the face of the metal are ground off, and the whole surface

is smooth and regularly figured, the speculum is then ready for the brass grinder, and must be laid aside for the present.

*The manner of forming the brass-grinding tool.*

The following is the method I have always pursued. Procure a round stout piece of Hamburgh brass, at most a sixth part larger than the metal to be polished; and let it be well hammered into a degree of convexity (by the assistance of the gage) suitable to the intended speculum. Having done this, scrape and clean the concave side so thoroughly that it may be well tinned all over; then cast upon it, after it has been pressed a proper depth into the sand, the former composition of tin and lead, in such quantity, that it may (for a speculum of four inches diameter) be at least an inch and an half thick, and with a base considerably broader than the top, in order that it may stand firmly upon the bench in the manner hereafter to be described. This being done, it must be fixed and turned in the lathe with great care, and of such a convexity as exactly to suit the concave gage, which we suppose already made. It will be necessary to be more careful in forming this than the former tool, and especially that no rings be left from the turning;

nor will the succeeding hone tool require so much exactness, as any defects in turning, will, by a method hereafter mentioned, be easily remedied; but any inequality or want of truth in the brass tool will occasion a great deal of trouble before it can be ground out by the emery. This tool must have a hole (somewhat less than that in the metal to be worked upon it) in the middle, quite through to the bottom. When this tool is finished off in the lathe, its diameter should be one-eighth wider than the metal.

*How to form the bed of hones, or the third tool.*

Having chosen the kind of hones, and the best too, of the sort recommended in SMITH'S Optics; they should be cemented in small pieces (in a kind of pavement agreeably to his directions) upon a thick round piece of marble, or metal made of lead and tin like the former composition (which is what I have always used) in such a manner, that the lines between the stones may run straight from one side to the other; so that, placing the teeth of a fine saw in each of these divisions, they may be cleared from one end to the other of the cement which rises between the stones. This bed of hones should be at least a fourth part larger than the metal which is to be ground upon it. The surface of the

metal upon which the hone pavement is to be cemented may or may not, as you please, be turned of a convexity suitable to the gage, though I have never taken that trouble. As soon as the hones are cemented down, and the joints cleared by the saw, this tool must be fixed in the lathe, and turned as exactly true to the gage as possible; which done, it must be laid aside for the present. The next tool to be made is the bruifer.

*The manner of forming the bruifer, the fourth and last tool.*

This tool should be likewise made of thick stout brass like the former, perfectly found, about a quarter of an inch thick, and hammered as near to the gage as possible. It should be then scraped, cleaned, and tinned on the convex side, as the former tool was on the concave, and the same thickness of lead and tin cast upon it. The general shape of this should differ from the former; for as that increased in diameter at the bottom for the sake of standing firmly, so this should be only as broad at bottom as at top, as it is to be used occasionally in both those positions. When this tool is fixed in the lathe, and turned off concave to the convex gage with great truth  
likewise,

likewise, its diameter ought to be the middle size between the hones and the polisher.

Having with the lathe roughly formed the convex brass grinder, the bed of hones, and the concave bruifers, the convex and concave brass tools and the metal must be wrought alternately and reciprocally upon each other with fine emery and water, so as to keep them as nearly to the same figure as possible, in order to which some washed emery must be procured. This is best done by putting it into a phial, which must be half filled with water and well shaken up, so that, as it subsides, the coarsest may fall to the bottom first, and the finest remain at the top: and whenever fresh emery is laid on the tools, the best method (which we should also observe with the putty in polishing) will be, to shake gently the bottle, and pour out a small quantity of the turbid mixture.

*Of grinding the speculum, the brass tool, and the bruifer, together.*

All the tools being ready, upon a firm post in the middle of a room, you are to begin to grind the brass convex tool with the bruifer upon it, working the latter crossways, with strokes sometimes across its diameter, at others a little to the right and left, and always so short that the  
bruifers

bruifers may not pass above half an inch within the surface of the brass tool either way, shifting the bruifer round its axis every half dozen strokes or thereabout. You must likewise, every now and then, shift your own position, by walking round, and working at different sides of the brass tool; at times the strokes should be carried round and round, but not much over the tool: in short, they must be directed in such a way, and the whole grinding conducted in such a manner and with such equability, that every part of both tools may wear equally. This habit of grinding, as well as the future one of polishing, will be soon acquired. When you have wrought in this manner about a quarter of an hour with the bruifer upon the tool, it will be then necessary to change them, and, placing the bruifer upon its bottom, to work the convex tool upon that in the same manner.

When by working in this equable manner, alternately with the bruifer and tool, and occasionally adding fresh emery, you have nearly got out all the vestiges of the turning tool, and brought them both nearly to a figure, it will be then time to give the same form to the metal. This must be done by now and then grinding it upon the brass tool with the same kind of emery, taking care however, by working the two former tools frequently together, to keep all three exactly in the same curve.

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The best kind of handle for the metal is made of lead, a little more than double its thickness, and somewhat less in diameter, of about three pounds weight, with a hole in the middle (for reasons to be shewn hereafter) a little larger than that in the metal: this handle should be cemented on with pitch. The upper edge of this weight must be rounded off, that the fingers may not be hurt; and a groove, about the bigness of the little finger, be turned round just below it, for the more conveniently holding and taking the metal off the tools.

*The manner of figuring the metal upon the hones.*

When the bruiser, brass tool, and metal, are all brought to the same figure, and have all a true good surface, the next part of the process is to give a correct spherical figure and a fine face to the metal, upon the hones. It will be necessary to premise, however, that the hones should be placed in a vessel of water, with which they should be quite covered for at least an hour before they are used, otherwise they will be perpetually altering their figure when the metal comes to be ground upon them. The same precaution is also necessary, if you are called off from the work while you are grinding:

grinding the metal, for if they be suffered to grow dry, the same inconvenience will arise.

In order to give a proper figure to the hones, and exactly suitable to that of the brafs tool, bruifer, and metal, when the hones are fixed down to the block, some common flour emery (unwashed) with a good deal of water must be put upon them, and the bruifer being placed upon the hones and rubbed thereon with a few strokes and a light hand, the inequalities of the stone will be quickly worn off; but as a great deal of mud will be suddenly generated, it must be washed off every quarter of a minute with a great deal of water. By a repetition of this, two or three times, the hones (being of a very soft and friable substance) will be cut down to the figure, without wearing or altering the bruifer at all. Though this business may be quickly done, and can be continued but for a few strokes at a time, I need not say that it is necessary that those strokes be carried in the same direction, and with the same care, which was observed in grinding the former tools together.

As soon as the hones have received the general figure of the bruifer, and all the turning strokes are worn out from them, the emery must be carefully washed off; in order to which, it will be necessary to clear it from the joints with a brush under a stream of water. The bruifer

and metal must be likewise cleared in the same manner, and with equal care, from any lurking particles of emery.

The hones being fixed down to the block, you now begin to work the bruifer upon them with very cautious, regular, short strokes, forward and backward, to the right and left, turning the axis of the bruifer in the hand while you move round the hones, by shifting your position, and walking round the block. Indeed the whole now depends upon a knack in working, which should be conducted nearly in the following manner. Having placed the bruifer on the centre of the hones, slide it in an equable manner forward and backward, with a stroke or two directly across the diameter, a little on one side, and so on the other; then shifting your position an eighth part round the block, and having turned the bruifer in your hand about as much, give it a stroke or two round and round, but not far over the edges of the hones, and then repeat the cross strokes as before: those round strokes (which ought not to be above two or three at most) are given every time you shift your own position and that of the metals, previous to the cross ones, in order to take out any stripes either in the hones or bruifer, which may be supposed to be occasioned, by the straight cross strokes. During the time of working, no mud must be suffered to collect upon the hones, so as to

destroy the perfect contact between the two tools; and therefore they must every now and then be washed clean by throwing some water upon them. When by working in this manner all the emery strokes are ground off from the bruifer, and it has acquired a good figure and clean surface, you may then begin with the metal upon the hones, in the same cautious manner, washing off the mud as fast as it collects, though that will be much less now than when the bruifer was ground upon them. Every now and then, however, the bruifer must be rubbed gently and lightly upon the hones, which will as it were, by sharpening them and preventing too great smoothness, occasion them to cut the metal much faster.

When, after having some time cautiously wrought in the manner before described, the hone-pavement has uniformly taken out all the emery strokes, and given a fine face and true figure to the metal, which will be pretty well known by the great equality there is in the feel while you are working, and by which an experienced workman will form a pretty certain judgment; having proceeded thus far, I say, you may then try your metal, and judge of its figure by this more certain manner.

Wash the hone pavement quite clean; then put the metal upon the center of it, and give two or three light strokes

strokes round and round only, not carrying, however, the edges of the metal much over the hones; this will take out the order of 'straight strokes: then having again washed the hones, and placed the speculum upon their center, with gentle pressure, slide it towards you till its edge be brought a little over that of the hones, then carry it quite across the diameter as far the other side, and having given the metal a light stroke or two in this direction, take it off the tool. The metal being wiped quite dry, place it upon a table at a little distance from a window; stand yourself as near the window, at some distance from the metal, and looking obliquely on its surface, turn it round its axis, and you will see at every half turn the grain given by the last cross strokes flash upon your eye at once over the whole face of the metal. This is as certain a proof of a true spherical figure as the operose and difficult method described in Dr. SMITH'S Optics; for as there is nothing soft or elastic, either in the metal or in the hones, this glare is a certain proof of a perfect contact in every part of the two surfaces; which there could not be if the spheres were not both perfect and precisely the same.

Indeed there is one accidental circumstance which necessarily affords its aid in this and every business of the like sort; and that is, that a concave and convex surface

ground together, though ever so irregular at first, will (if the working be uniform and proper, consisting, especially at last, of cross strokes in every possible direction across the diameter) be formed into portions of true and equal spheres; had it not been for this lucky necessity, it would have been impossible to have produced that correctness which is essential in the speculum of a good reflecting telescope by any mechanic contrivance whatever. For when it is considered, that the errors in reflection are four times as great as in refraction, and that the least defect in figure is magnified by the powers of the instrument, any thing short of perfection in the figure of the speculum would be evidently perceived by a want of distinctness in the performance.

I must not, however, quit this article without observing, that I all along suppose, both in forming the tools and at last figuring the metal (and indeed the same must be observed in the future process of polishing) that no kind of pressure is used that may endanger the bending or irregularly grinding them; they should therefore be held with a light hand, and loosely between the fingers, and the motion given should be in a horizontal direction, with no more pressure than their own dead weight.

Having now finished the metal on the hones, and rendered it both in point of figure and surface fit for the

last

last and most essential process, *viz.* that of polishing, I will describe it in the best manner I can; though many little circumstances which will be unavoidably omitted (and which at the same time are frequently essential to the success of a mechanic process) can only be supplied by actual experience.

The polishing the speculum is the most difficult and essential part of the whole process; for every experienced workman knows, to his vexation, that the most trifling error here will be sufficient to spoil the figure of his metal, and render all his preceding caution useless. I have, however, discovered a method which I shall explain, not only of giving the metal a parabolic figure, but also of recovering it when it happens to be injured; both to be effected in the act of polishing, and the former as certainly as the spherical figure is given upon the hones. Indeed, if we consider rightly, polishing will be perceived to be but a kind of grinding with a finer order of strokes, and with a powder infinitely finer than was before used in what is commonly called the grinding. But before I describe this method, which was the result of many years experience, I will take the liberty of making some few strictures on that of Mess. HADLEY and MOLYNEUX, which is followed by the generality of workmen.

First, then, the tool itself used by them for polishing the metal, is formed with infinite difficulty. The first described polisher is directed to be made by covering the tool with farsenet, which is to be saturated with a solution of pitch in spirit of wine, by successive applications of it with a brush, till it is covered, and by the evaporation of the spirit of wine filled with this extract of pitch; the surface is then to be worked down and finished with the bruiser. This is all very easy in imagination; but whoever has used this method (which I have myself unsuccessfully several times) must have found it attended with infinite labour, and at last the business done in a very unsatisfactory manner; for the pitch by this process will be deprived of an essential part of its composition. The spirit of wine dissolves none but the resinous parts of its substance, which is hard and untractable; and if you use soap or spirit of wine to soften or dissolve it, it will equally affect the whole surface, the lower as well as higher parts of it. And suppose that with infinite labour with the bruiser, it is at last reduced to a fine uniform surface, it is nevertheless too hard ever to give a good polish with that lustre which is always seen in Mr. SHORT's, and indeed all other good metals. Nor will it give a good spherical figure; for a perfect sphere is formed, as I observed before, by that intimate accommodation



dation arising from the wear and yielding of both tool and metal; whereas in this method, there is such a stubbornness in the polisher, that the figure of the metal, good or bad, must depend upon the truth of the former, which is very seldom perfect.

If the polisher be made in the second manner proposed, by straining the pitch through an outer covering, which is afterwards to be stripped off, the superficies of pitch and farsenet is so very thin, that the putty, working into them, forms a surface hard and untractable, so that it is impossible to give the speculum a fine polish. Accordingly all those metals which are wrought that way have an order of scratches instead of polish, discovering itself by a greyish visible surface. Besides, supposing this tool perfectly finished, and answering its purpose ever so well, it is impossible it can produce in the speculum any other than a spherical figure; and indeed nothing else is expected from this method, as very evidently appears by the experiment recommended to ascertain the truth of the figure. You are directed to place a small luminous object in the center of the sphere of which the metal is a segment, and then having adjusted an eye-glass at the distance of its own focal length from the object, and so situated that the image of the object formed by the speculum may be visible to the eye, you are to judge of the

3 perfect.

perfect figure of the metal by the sharpness and distinctness with which the image appears. From hence it is very evident, that as the object and image are both distant from the metal by exactly its radius, nothing but a true spherical figure of the speculum can produce a sharp distinct image; and that the image could not be distinct if the figure of the speculum were parabolic. Consequently, if the same speculum used in a telescope were to receive parallel rays, there would necessarily be a considerable aberration produced, and a consequent imperfection in the image. Accordingly, there never was a good telescope made in this manner; for if the number of degrees, or the portion of the sphere of which the great metal is a part, were as considerable as it ought to be, or as great as Mr. SHORT allowed in his metal, the instrument would bear but a very low charge, unless a great part of the circumference of the metal were cut off by an aperture, and the ill effects of the aberration by that means in some measure prevented.

If ever a finished metal turned out without this defect, and has been found perfectly sharp and distinct, it must have been owing to an accidental parabolic tendency, no ways the natural result of the process, and therefore quite unexpected, and most probably unknown, to the workman.

Without

Without enlarging, therefore, on the difficulty of the above process, and the impossibility of giving the speculum the correctness and the kind of figure essentially necessary to a good telescope, I will describe (by way of introduction to the succeeding directions) the steps by which I was led to a certain and easy method of giving a proper and correct parabolic figure to the metal, even though it came off imperfect from the hones, and an exquisite polish at the same time.

Having made many efforts in the former method, which by no means pleased me for the reasons above-mentioned; and having observed, from some of Mr. SHORT'S telescopes which fell into my hands, that the high lustre of the polish could never have been produced in the manner above described, but by some softer and more tender substance; and at the same time recollecting, that Sir ISAAC NEWTON had given an account in his Optics of his having finished some metals, and considerably mended the object glass of a refractor, by working both upon a tool whose surface had been covered with common pitch about the thickness of a groat; reflecting, I say, upon these matters (coarse and uncertain as this method appeared at first sight) I was determined to try whether I could not get rid of my embarrassment, by a mode of operation somewhat similar. Accordingly, shortening

Dr. SMITH's process, I made a set of tools in the manner before described, except that I was obliged to make some subsequent alteration in the polisher which I shall presently describe. Having given a good spherical figure to the brass tool and the bruifer, and likewise to the metal upon the hones, and made the brass convex tool so hot as just not to hurt the finger, I tied a lump of common pitch (which should be neither too hard nor too soft) in a rag, and holding it in a pair of tongs over a still fire where there was no rising dust, till it was ready to strain through the linen, I caused it to drop upon the several parts of the convex tool, till I supposed it would cover the whole surface about double the thickness of a shilling; then spreading the pitch as equally as I could, I suffered the polisher (by which name I shall for the future call this tool) to grow quite cold. I then warmed the bruifer so hot as almost to burn my fingers, and having fixed it to the bench with its face upwards, I suddenly placed the polisher upon it, and quickly slid it off; by this means rendering the surface of the pitch more equal. The pitch is then to be wiped off from the bruifer with a little tow; and by touching the surface with a tallow candle, and wiping it a second time, it will be then perfectly clean and fit for a second process of the same sort, which must again be performed as quickly as possible; and

and this is ordinarily sufficient to give a general figure to the surface of the pitch. The bruifer and polisher are then suffered to grow perfectly cold, when the pitch, considering what has been taken off, will be about the thickness of a shilling.

It is however here necessary to observe, that the pitch should be neither very hard and resinous, nor too soft; if the former, it will be so untractable as not to work kindly; and if too soft, it will in working alter its figure faster than the metal, and too readily fit itself to the irregularity of its figure, if it have any. When both tools were perfectly cold, I gave the polisher a gentle warmth, and then fixed the bruifer to the block with its face upwards; and (having with a large camel's-hair brush spread over the face of the polisher a little water and soap, to prevent sticking) with short, straight, and round strokes I worked it upon the bruifer, every now and then adding a little more water and soap, till the pitch upon the polisher had a fine surface, and the true form of the bruifer; and this I continued to do till they both grew perfectly cold together: in this manner the polisher was perfectly formed in about a quarter of an hour. But here a difficulty arose: when I begun to polish the metal, I found that the edge of the hole in the metal collected the pitch towards the middle of the polisher; and

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though in this method of working I could give an exquisite polish, as the putty lodged itself in the pitch exceedingly well, yet the figure of the metal was injured in the middle, nor did indeed the work go on with that equability which is the inseparable attendant on a good figure. In order to obviate this difficulty, I cast some metals with a continued face, the holes not going quite through, within perhaps the thickness of a six-pence. I finished two or three metals of this sort, and the work promised and went on very well; but when I came to open the holes, which I did with the utmost caution, I found the metals short of perfection; which I attributed to an alteration of the figure from the removal of even that small portion of metal after the speculum had been finished. This I do suppose was in some measure the reason why I spoiled a very distinct and perfect two-foot metal, which bore a charge of two hundred times, only by opening the sharp part of the edge of the hole, because I thought it bounded the field: so essentially necessary is an exquisite correctness of figure in the speculum of a perfect reflector.

This experiment not succeeding, instead of casting the metal without a hole, I made one quite through the middle of the polisher, a little less than that in the speculum. This perfectly answered the purpose; no more  
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inconvenience arose from the gathering of the pitch (for it had now no greater tendency to collect at the center than the sides) and I finished several metals successively, excellent both in point of figure and polish; one of those of two inches diameter and 7,5 focal length, bore a charge of sixty times and upwards, which when mounted in a telescope I gave to my brother. This telescope underwent Mr. SHORT'S examination, who was pleased to remark only, that he thought he had made one more distinct.

I must observe, that in this method of working the polishing goes on in an agreeable, uniform, and smooth manner; and that the small degree of yielding in the pitch (which is actually not more than the wearing of the metal) produces that mutual accommodation of surfaces so necessary to a true figure. In the beginning of the polish, and indeed for some time during the progress of it (always remembering now and then to move the metal round its axis) I worked round and round, not far from and always equally distant from the center, except that every time, previous to the shifting the metal on its axis, I used a cross stroke or two; and when the polish was nearly compleated, I mostly used cross strokes, giving a round stroke or two likewise every time I turned the metal on its axis. I observed in this method of working, that the metal always polished fastest in the middle; inasmuch,

inasmuch, that half or two-thirds of it would be completely polished when the circumference of it was scarcely touched by the tool. Observing this in some of the first metals, and not considering that this way of polishing was in fact a species of grinding, and as perfect as that upon the hones, I went on reluctantly with the work, almost despairing of being able to produce a good figure. However, I always found myself agreeably deceived; for when the polish was extended to the edge, or within the tenth of an inch of it, I almost constantly found the figure good, and the performance of the metal very distinct. But this same circumstance of apparent defect in the metals, was in fact that to which their perfection was owing; for they all, contrary to my expectation, turned out parabolic. However I did not for a great while know any certain way of giving that degree of parabolic tendency which was just necessary, and which will be described hereafter. It was a long time before I got rid of my prejudice against this apparent imperfection in the process, or could reconcile myself to the irregular manner in which the polish proceeded; for I looked upon it as a certain source of error, and notwithstanding I saw it eventually succeed, yet whenever I chanced to find that a metal, when first applied to the polisher, took the polish equally all over, and



and consequently the whole business did not take up above ten minutes; under those circumstances, I say, I always used to please myself with the expectation of a correct figure, at least as much so as the metal had received from the hones, where the surface was but just and equally taken off by the putty; but in this I constantly found myself deceived, and the metal turned out good for nothing. In short, at this time, though I speculatively knew that a parabolic figure was necessary to a perfect image, I yet considered it as of little practical consequence.

From the foregoing experiments, and a number of succeeding trials, I at length discovered a certain way of giving a correct parabolic figure, and an exquisite polish at the same time. This, which I have strong reasons to believe was Mr. SHORT's method, I will now describe in as few words as I can.

*How to polish the speculum.*

It is first necessary to observe, that, in order to avoid the detrimental intrusions of any particles of emery, it would not be right to polish in the same room where the metal and tools were ground, nor in the same cloaths which were worn in the former process; at least it would

be necessary to keep the bench quite wet, to prevent any dust from rising.

Having then made the polisher by coating the brass convex tool equally with pitch, which we suppose smoothed and finished with the brass tool in the manner before described, and which is a very easy process, the whole operation is begun and finished in the following manner.

The leaden weight or handle upon the back of the metal should be divided into eight parts, by so many deep strokes of a graver upon the upper surface of the lead, marking each stroke with the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and so on, that the turns of the metal in the hand may be known to be uniform and regular.

To prevent any mischief from coarse particles of putty, I always wash it immediately before using. In order to this, put about half an ounce of putty into an ounce phial, and fill it two-thirds with water; then having shaken the whole, let the putty subside, and stop the bottle with a cork.

In a tea-cup with a little water, there should be a full-sized camel's-hair brush, and a piece of dry clean soap in a galley-pot: a soft piece of sponge will also be necessary. These, as well as the metal bruiser and polisher, should be constantly covered from dust.

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The polisher being fixed down, and the camel's-hair brush, being first wetted and rubbed a little over the soap, let every part of the tool be brushed over therewith; then work the bruiser with short, straight, and round strokes, lightly upon the tool, and continue to do so, now and then turning it, till the polisher have a good face, and be fit for the metal. Then having shaken up the putty in the phial, and touched the polisher in five or six places with the cork wetted with that and the water, place the bruiser upon the tool, and give a few strokes upon the putty to rub down any gritty particles; after which, having removed it, work the metal lightly upon the polisher round and round, carrying the edges of the speculum, however, not quite half an inch over the edge of the tool, and now and then with a cross stroke.

The first putty, and indeed all the succeeding applications of it, should be wrought with a considerable while; for if time be not given for the putty to bed itself in the pitch, and any quantity of it lie loose upon the polisher, it will accumulate into knobs, which will injure the figure of the metal: and therefore as often as ever such knobs arise, they must be carefully scraped off with the point of a penknife, and the loose stuff taken away with the brush. After the putty is well wrought into the pitch, some more may be added in the same manner, but

never much at a time, and always remembering to work upon it first with the bruifer, for fear any gritty particles may find their way upon the polisher. If the bruifer be apt to stick, and do not slide smoothly upon the pitch, the surface of either tool may be occasionally brushed over with the soap and water, but it must be remembered that the wet brush must be but lightly rubbed upon the soap.

In the beginning of this process little effect is produced, and the metal does not seem to polish fast, in some measure owing to its taking the polish in the middle, and perhaps because neither that nor the bruifer move evenly upon the polisher: but a little perseverance will bring the whole into a good temper of working; and, when the pitch is well defended by the coating of the putty, the process will advance apace, and the former acquiring possibly some little warmth, the metal moves more agreeably over it, with an uniform and regular friction. All this while the metal must have no more pressure than that which it derives from its own weight and that of the handle; and the polisher must never be suffered to grow dry, but, as often as it has any tendency to do so, the edges of it must be moistened with the hair-pencil; and now and then, even when fresh putty is not laid on, the surface of the polisher should be touched with the brush to keep it moist.

When the polish of the metal nearly reaches the edge (for it always, as I said before, begins in the middle) you must alter your method of working; for now the round strokes must be gradually altered for the short and straight ones. Supposing then you are just beginning to alter them; after having put on fresh putty, and gently rubbed it with two or three strokes of the bruifer, you place the metal on the tool, and after a stroke or two round and round, give it a few forward and backward, and from side to side, but with the edges very little over the tool; then having turned the metal one-eighth round in your hand, and having moved yourself as much round the block (which must be remembered throughout the whole process) you go on again with a stroke or two round, to lead you only to the cross strokes, which are now to be principally used, and with more boldness. After this has been done some time, the metal will begin to move stiffly as the friction now increases, and the speculum polishes very beautifully and fast; and the whole surface of the polishing tool will be equally covered over with a fine metallic bronze. The tool even now must not be suffered to become dry; a single round stroke in each of your stations and turnings of the metal will be sufficient, and the rest must all be cross ones, for we are completing a circular figure. You must now be very

diligent, for the polisher drying, and the friction increasing very fast, the business of the spherical figure is nearly at an end. As the metal wears much, its surface must be now and then cleaned, with a piece of shammy leather, from the black stuff which collects upon it; and the polisher likewise from the same matter, with a soft piece of wet sponge. You will now be able to judge of the perfect spherical figure of the metal and tool, when there is a perfect correspondence between the surfaces, by the fine equable feel there is in working, which is totally free from all jerks and inequalities. Having proceeded thus far, you may put the last finishing to this figure of the metal by bold cross strokes, only three or four in the directions of each of the eight diameters, turning the metal at the same time: this must be done quickly, for it ought, in this part of the process particularly, to be remembered, that, if you permit the tool to grow quite dry, you will never be able, with all your force, to separate that and the metal, without destroying the polisher by heat.

The metal has now a beautiful polish and a true spherical figure, but will by no means make a sharp distinct image in the telescope: for the speculum (if it be tried in the manner hereafter recommended) will not be found to make parallel rays converge without great  
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aberration; indeed the deviation will be so great, as to be very sensibly perceived by a great indistinctness in the image.

*How to give the parabolic figure to the metal.*

In order then to give the speculum the last and finishing figure, which is done by a few strokes, it must be particularly remarked, that by working the metal round and round, the sphere of the polisher by this means growing less, it wears fastest in the middle: and as a segment of a sphere may become parabolic, by opening the extremes gradually from within outwards, so it may be equally well done by increasing the curvature in the middle, in a certain ratio, from without inwards.

Supposing then the metal to be now truly spherical, stop the hole in the polisher, by forcing a cork into it underneath, about an inch, so that it do not reach quite to the surface; and having washed off any mud that may be on the surface of the tool with a wet soft piece of sponge, whilst the surface of it is a little moist, place the center of the metal upon the middle of the polisher; then having, with the wet brush, lodged as much water round the edge of the metal as the projecting edge will hold,

hold, fill the hole of the metal and its handle with water, to prevent the evaporation of the moisture, and the consequent adhesion between the speculum and polisher, and let the whole rest in this state two or three hours: this will produce an intimate contact between the two, and by parting, with any degree of warmth they may have acquired by the vicinity of the operator, they will grow perfectly cold together.

By this time you may push out the cork from the polisher, to discharge the water, and give the metal the parabolic figure in the following manner.

Move the metal gently and slowly at first, a very little round the centre of the polisher (indeed after this rest it will move stiffly) then increasing by degrees the diameter of these strokes, and turning the metal frequently round its axis, give it a larger circular motion, and this without any pressure but its own weight, and holding it loosely between the fingers: this manner of working may safely be continued about two minutes, moving yourself as usual round the block, and carrying the round strokes in their increased and largest state, not more than will move the edge of the metal half an inch or five-eighths over the tool. The speculum must not all this while be taken off from the polisher; and consequently no fresh putty can be added.



added. It will not be safe to continue this motion longer than the time above-mentioned; for if the parabolic tendency be carried the least too far, it will be impossible to recover a true figure of that kind but by going through the whole process for the spherical one in the manner before described, by the cross strokes upon the polisher, which takes a great deal of time. However, when there is occasion, it may be done; and I have myself several times recovered the circular figure, when I had inadvertently gone too far with the parabolic; and ultimately finished the metal on the polisher without the use of the hones.

*To try the true figure of the metal.*

It will now be proper to try the figure of the speculum, and that is always best done by placing it in the telescope it is intended for. In order to this, I use the instrument as a kind of microscope, placing the object, however, at such a distance that the rays may be nearly parallel. At about twenty yards a watch-paper, or some such object, on which there are some very fine hair strokes of a graver, is fixed up. The lead must be then taken off from the back of the speculum; which is best done by placing the edge of a knife at the junction of the lead and metal, when, by striking the back of it with a  
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flight blow, the pitch immediately separates, and the handle drops off; the remaining pitch may be scraped off with a knife, taking care that none of the dust stick to the polished face of the metal.

Having placed the speculum in the cell of the tube, and directed the instrument to the object, make an annular kind of diaphragm with card-paper, so as to cover a circular portion of the middle part of the metal between the hole and the circumference, equal in breadth to about an eighth part of the diameter of the speculum: this paper ring should be fixed in the mouth of the telescope, and remain so during the whole experiment, for the part of the metal covered by it is supposed to be perfect, and therefore unemployed.

There must likewise be two other circular pieces of card-paper cut out, of such sizes, that one may cover the center of the metal by completely filling the hole in the last described annular piece; and the other, such a round piece as shall exactly fit into the tube, and so broad as that the inner edge may just touch the outward circumference of the middle annular piece. It would be convenient to have these two last pieces so fixed to an axis that they may be put in their places, or removed from thence so easily as not to displace or shake the instrument.

instrument. All these pieces therefore together will completely shut up the mouth of the telescope.

Let the round piece which covers the center of the metal, or that which has no hole in it, be removed; and, by a nice adjustment of the screw, let the image (which is now formed by the center of the mirror) be made as sharp and distinct as possible. This being done, every thing else remaining at rest, replace the central piece, and remove the outside annular one, by which means the circumference only of the speculum will be exposed, and the image now formed will be from the rays reflected from the outside of the metal. If there be no occasion to move the screw and little metal, and the two images formed by these two portions of the metal be perfectly sharp and equally distinct, the speculum is perfect, and of the true parabolic curve; or at least the errors of the great and little speculum, if there be any, are corrected by each other.

If, on the contrary, under the last circumstance, the image from the outside of the metal should not be distinct, and it should become necessary, in order to make it so, that the little speculum be brought nearer, it is plain that the metal is not yet brought to the parabolic figure; but if, on the other hand, in order to procure distinctness, you be obliged to move the little speculum farther off, then the figure of the great speculum has been carried beyond

the parabolic, and hath assumed an hyperbolic form. When the latter is the case, the circular figure of the metal must be recovered (after having fixed on the handle with soft pitch) by bold cross strokes upon the polisher, finishing it again in the manner above described. If the speculum be not yet brought to the parabolic form, it must cautiously have a few more round strokes upon the polisher; indeed a very few of them in the manner before described make in effect a greater difference in the speculum than would be at first imagined. If a metal of a true spherical figure were to be tried in the above mentioned manner in the telescope (which I have frequently done) the difference of the foci of the two segments of the metal would be so considerable, as to require two or three turns of the screw to adjust them; so very great is the aberration of a spherical figure of the speculum, and so improper to procure that sharpness and precision so necessary to a good reflecting telescope.

This is by no means the case with the object glasses of refractors; for besides that they are in fact never so distinct as well-finished reflectors, the apertures of them are so exceedingly small, compared to the latter, and the number of degrees employed so very small, that the inconvenience of a spherical figure is not so much perceived. Accordingly we observe in the generality of

reflectors (whose specula, unless by accident, are always spherical) that the only true rays which form the distinct image arise from the middle of the metal: and unless the defect be remedied by a considerable aperture, which destroys much light, the false reflection from the inside of the metal produces a greyish kind of haziness, which is never seen in Mr. SHORT'S or indeed in any good telescopes.

Supposing that the two foci of the different parts of the metal perfectly coincide, and that, by the union of them when the apertures are removed, the telescope shews the objects very sharp and distinct, you are not however even then to conclude that the instrument is not capable of farther improvement; for you will perceive a sensible difference in the sharpness of the image, under different positions of the great speculum with respect to the little one, by turning round the great metal in its cell, and opposing different parts of it to different parts of the little metal, correcting by this means the error of one by the other. This attempt should be persevered in for some time, turning round the great speculum about one-sixteenth at a time, and carefully observing the most distinct situation each time the eye-piece is screwed on: when, by trying and turning the great metal all round, the distinctest position is discovered, the upper part of the

metal should be marked with a black stroke, in order that it may always be lodged in the cell in the same position. This is the method Mr. SHORT always used; and the caution is of so much consequence, that he thought it necessary to mention it very particularly in his printed directions for the use of the instrument.

And farther, Mr. SHORT frequently corrected the errors of the great by the little metal in another way. If the great speculum did not answer quite well in the telescope, he cured that defect sometimes by trying the effect of several metals successively, by this means correcting the errors of one by the other; for in several of his telescopes which have passed through my hands, when the sizes and powers have been the same, I have found that the great metals, though very distinct in their proper telescopes, yet have, when taken out and changed from one to the other, spoiled both telescopes, rendering them exceedingly indistinct, which could arise from no other circumstance. For this reason I suppose it was, that he kept, ready finished, a great many large metals of the same focal length, so that, when he wanted to mount a telescope, he might from a great choice, be able to combine those metals which suited each other best. I am strongly inclined to believe this was the case, not only from the above observation, but because  
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He shewed me himself a box of finished metals, in which I am sure there were a dozen and a half of the same focal length.

To return : a little use in working will make the whole of the process of grinding and polishing very easy and certain ; for though I have endeavoured to be as particular as I can (I am almost afraid too much so) it is yet scarcely possible to supply a want of dexterity, arising from habit only, by the most laboured and minute description. And though the above account may appear irksome to the reader, as it lies cold before the eye, I am very sure, whoever attempts to make the instrument, will not complain of it as tediously particular.

I will, however, farther remark, that when the metal begins to move stiffly upon the polisher, and particularly when the figure is almost brought to the parabolic form, it will be necessary to fix the elbows against the sides, in order to give momentum and equability to the motion of the hand by that of the whole body.

The same polisher will serve for several metals, if it be somewhat warmed when you begin to use it.

There is another circumstance, and a material one too, which must not be omitted ; it is this. For the very same reason that the pitch should not be too hard or soft, the work will not proceed well in the heat of summer,

or the cold of winter: in the latter, it may be possible to remedy the defect by having the room warmed with a stove; and in the summer, the other inconvenience may perhaps be avoided by using a harder kind of pitch; but I much doubt in either case whether the work will go on so kindly: I have myself always wrought in spring and autumn.

The process of polishing, and indeed grinding upon the hones, will not go on so well if it be not continued uninterruptedly from beginning to end; for if the work of either kind be left but for a quarter of an hour, and you then return to it again, it will be some time before the tool and metal can get into a kindly way of working; and till they do, you are hurting what was done before.

I have all along supposed that the metal we have been working was about four inches diameter: if it be either larger or smaller, the sizes of the hones, bruiser, and polisher, must be proportionably different. I never find any ill consequence arising from the different expansion from heat and cold in any of the tools, though they be made of different metals and substances, unless the inconvenience, occasioned by the interruption before hinted at, be thought to result from thence; for the alteration produced in the surface of the speculum, both by grinding and polishing, is so much quicker than any that can be supposed to arise from



from the former cause, that it is never attended with any practical consequence.

Magnifying very minute objects, and particularly reading at a distance, have been generally considered as the surest tests of the goodness of a telescope; and indeed when the page is placed at a great distance, so that the letters subtend but a very small angle at the eye, if then they appear with great precision and sharpness, it is most probable that the instrument is a good one. But we are, nevertheless, sometimes apt to be deceived by this method; nor is it always possible to determine upon the different merits of two instruments of equal power, by this mode of examination; for when the letters are removed to the utmost extent of the powers of the two instruments, the eye is apt to be prejudiced by the imagination. If two or three words can be here and there made out, all the rest are guessed at by the sense; inasmuch that an observer, zealous for the honour of his instrument, is very apt to deceive himself in spite of his intentions. The surer test is by figures, where you can procure no aid from this sort of deception. In order to examine my reflecting telescopes, I made upon a piece of copper and on a black ground, six lines consisting of about twelve pieces of gold figures, and each line of figures differing in magnitude, from the smallest that could be distinctly made to those  
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of about two-tenths of an inch long; moreover, the figures in the several lines were differently disposed, and the sum of each line also differed. It is evident that by this method all guess is precluded; and that of two instruments, of the same powers, that which can make out the least order of figures, which will be known by the sum, is the best telescope. Such a plate I caused to be fixed up for experiments against the top of a steeple, about three hundred yards North of my house; and it will serve to give some idea of the distinctness with which very small figures could be made out at that distance, by saying, that in a clear state of the air, and with the Sun behind me, with a telescope of eighteen inches focal length, which Count BRUHL did me the honour to accept and now has in his possession, I have seen the legs of a small fly, and the shadows of them, with great precision and exactness.

I cannot conclude without indulging myself in an observation on the amazing sagacity of Sir ISAAC NEWTON in every subject upon which he thought fit to employ his attention. It was he who first proposed, and indeed practised, the polishing with pitch; a substance which at first sight perhaps every one but himself would have thought very improper, from its softness, to produce that correctness of figure so necessary upon these occasions; and yet I do believe, that it is the only substance in nature

that is perfectly well calculated for the purpose; for at the same time that it is soft enough to suffer the putty to lodge very freely on its surface, and for that reason to give a most tender and delicate polish; it is likewise totally inelastic, and therefore never, from that principle, suffers any alteration in the figure you give it. If the first makers of the instrument, therefore, had given proper credit to, or had simply followed the hint Sir ISAAC gave, it would have saved them infinite trouble, and they would have produced much better instruments; but the pretended refinement, of drawing a tincture from pitch with spirits of wine, affords you only the resinous, hard, and untractable part of the pitch, divested of all that part of its original substance which is necessary to give it that accommodating pliability in which its excellence consists.

It is needless to swell this account with a detail of the process for polishing the little speculum, as it must be conducted in the same manner which has been already described in that of the large one; only observing, that as the little metal has an uninterrupted face, without a hole, so there is no occasion for one in the polisher; and likewise that, as a spherical figure is all that need here be practically attempted, so the difficulty in finishing is infinitely short of that of the other.

As it is always necessary to folder to the back of the little speculum a piece of brass, as a fixture for the screw to adjust its axis, I shall just hint a safe and neat method of doing it, which may be very useful to the optical or mathematical instrument-maker upon other occasions. Having cleaned the parts to be foldered very well, cut out a piece of tin-foil the exact size of them; then dip a feather into a pretty strong solution of *sal ammoniac* in water, and rub it over the surfaces to be foldered; after which place the tin-foil between them as fast as you can (for the air will quickly corrode their surfaces so as to prevent the folder taking) and give the whole a gradual and sufficient heat to melt the tin. If the joints to be foldered have been made very flat, they will not be thicker than a hair: though the surfaces be ever so extensive, the foldering may be conducted in the same manner, only that care must be taken, by general pressure, to keep them close together. In this manner, for instance, a silver graduated plate may be foldered on to the brass limb of a quadrant, so as not to be discernable by any thing but the different colour of the metals. This method was communicated to me by the late Mr. JACKSON, who during his life kept it a secret, as he used it in the construction of his quadrants, and is, I believe, not as yet known to any workman.

In the annexed plate are figured the shape of the leaden tool for rough-grinding; the hones; and the apparatus to be applied to the mouth of the telescope, to ascertain the true figure of the speculum.

P O S T S C R I P T.

It was some time after I had written the above account that I saw Mr. SHORT's method of polishing object glasses for refracting telescopes, which is published in the Transactions. By that paper I find that what I before strongly suspected is really the case, *viz.* that he knew how well pitch was calculated for purposes of this kind. Only it may be remarked, that as glass is much harder, polishes much slower, and consequently does not wear away and alter its figure so soon as the metal of which the speculum is made; and as at the same time (on account of the very small apertures allowed to telescopes of this sort) nothing more than a spherical figure is proposed; he is therefore obliged to use pitch in a hard, friable, and stubborn state: whereas, considering the delicate substance of the metal speculum, and the figure intended to be given to it, the soft pitch of the common sort, by suffering the putty to bed itself in its substance,

produces the most beautiful polish; and by its pliability is better calculated for that mutual accommodation between polisher and metal, so necessary to the figure proposed.

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#### EXPLANATION OF THE FIGURES.

Fig. 1. The grinder for working off the rough face of the metal; the black strokes represent deep grooves made with a graver.

Fig. 2. The bed of hones, which is to complete the spherical figure of the speculum, and to render its surface fit for the polisher.

Fig. 3. An apparatus for examining the parabolic figure of the speculum.

AA The mouth of the telescope, or edge of the great tube.

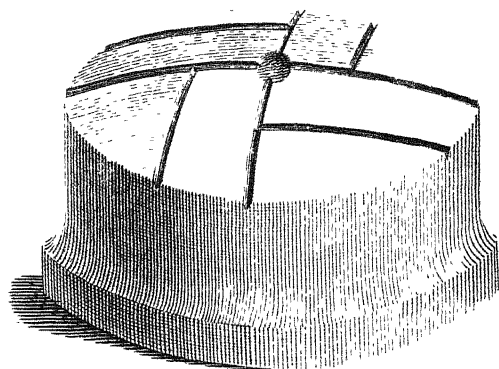
BB A thin piece of wood fastened into, and flush with the end of the tube; to which is permanently fixed the annular piece of paste-board cc, intended to cover, and to prevent the action of the corresponding part of the speculum.



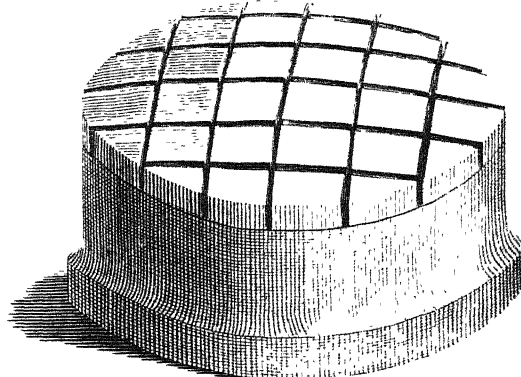




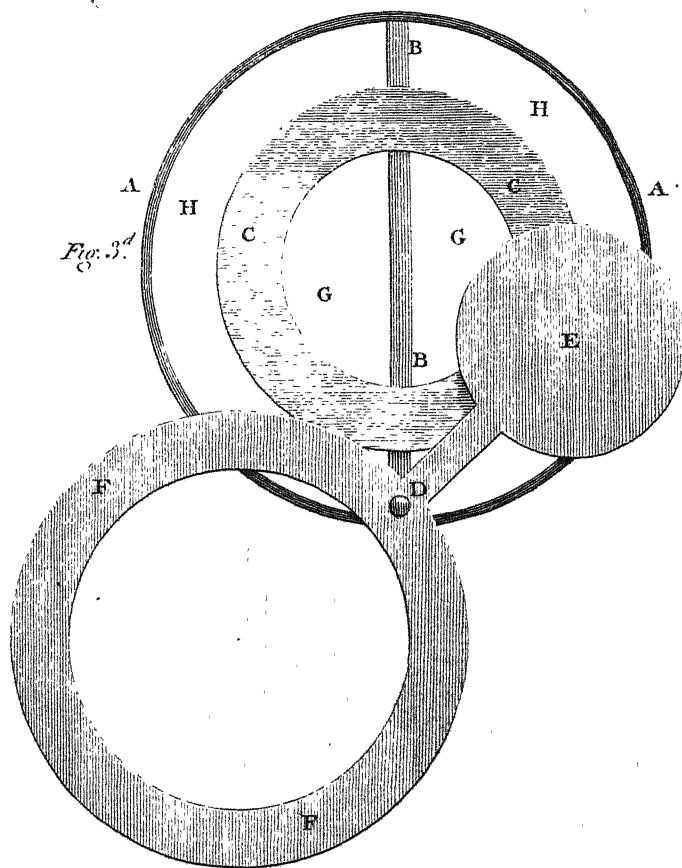
*Fig. 1<sup>a</sup>*



*Fig. 2<sup>a</sup>*

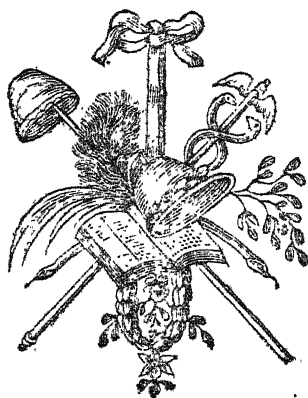


*Fig. 3<sup>a</sup>*





D Another piece of paste-board, fixed by a pin to the piece of wood BB, on which it turns as on a center; so that the great annular opening HH may be shut up by the ring FF, or the aperture GG by the imperforate piece E in such manner that, in the first instance, the reflexion may be from the center, and in the latter from the circumference, of the great speculum.



XVII. *Extract of a Register of the Barometer, Thermometer, and Rain, at Lyndon, in Rutland, 1776. By Thomas Barker, Esquire. Communicated by Sir John Pringle, Bart. P. R. S.*

Read February 20, 1776.

		Barometer.			Thermometer.						Rain.
		Higheft	Lowest	Mean.	In the House.			Abroad.			
					High.	Low.	Mean	High.	Low.	Mean	
Jan.	Morn.	29,65	28,88	29,27	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	23	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	10	26	2,511
	Aftern.				43	26	33	45	16	29	
Feb.	Morn.	29,50	28,24	28,89	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	39	44	11	35	3,195
	Aftern.				45	25	40	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	27	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Mar.	Morn.	29,95	28,50	29,46	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	27	38	1,518
	Aftern.				55	40	46	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	37	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Apr.	Morn.	29,94	29,00	29,58	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	43	50	52	31	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	0,887
	Aftern.				57 $\frac{1}{2}$	44	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	55	
May	Morn.	29,99	28,73	29,57	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	47	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	58	38	47	1,627
	Aftern.				66	48	53	76	38	57	
June	Morn.	29,87	29,04	29,42	66	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	59	62	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	54	2,485
	Aftern.				69 $\frac{1}{2}$	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	61	75	54	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	
July	Morn.	29,86	29,03	29,45	65	57	62	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	53	58	1,850
	Aftern.				68 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	64	80	65	69 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Aug.	Morn.	29,83	29,00	29,41	70	57	61	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	46	54	5,200
	Aftern.				75	59	62 $\frac{1}{2}$	82 $\frac{1}{2}$	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	66	
Sept.	Morn.	29,93	28,75	29,40	62	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	60	37	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,452
	Aftern.				64	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	69	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	61	
Oct.	Morn.	29,87	29,06	29,56	57 $\frac{1}{2}$	48	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	53	36	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,061
	Aftern.				58	48	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	62	48	54	
Nov.	Morn.	29,85	28,60	29,42	52	37	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	54	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$	2,823
	Aftern.				52	37	46	54	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	44	
Dec.	Morn.	29,94	28,73	29,43	48 $\frac{1}{2}$	34	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	49	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	37	1,233
	Aftern.				49	34	43	52	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 $\frac{1}{2}$	
											27,842

The year began wet, but there soon fell a greater quantity of snow than for several years past: we had perhaps the sharpest frost since 1740, and it was more intense at the latter part of it than at the beginning. The frost went away finely the beginning of February, and without much rain till the snow was almost gone; but a good deal of the middle of February was stormy and wet, and it was chiefly wet till about ten days in March, yet not cold. Then the season grew dry; the seed-time was fine, pleasant, growing warmer, and in the middle of April hot. There was great plenty of blossoms of all sorts, and the grass came on well; but the wheat, which had been left thin by the great frost and snow, was rather hurried on too fast. It grew colder at the end of April, and was cool and dry most part of May, with chiefly Northerly winds. During this time the wheat mended much, but rain began to be wanted, of which there came some in June, and brought on both corn and grass. The latter end of that month and July were only showery and hotter, so that the hay was got in well; and toward the end of July and beginning of August, the ground began to burn pretty much, when after some very hot days there came a great deal of wet.

The course of the seasons this year was I believe the same in all places. Dry spring and beginning of summer, showery June, drier July, very hot beginning of August,

and wet after; but in different proportions in various places. In some, as Leicestershire and Northamptonshire, the drought so much prevailed that the ground was greatly burnt, and hay very scarce; on the other hand here and in Huntingdonshire, there were so many refreshing showers that we never were in want of grafs.

The beginning of harvest was wet, and the rest showery. I believe a little of the wheat might grow, but in general the grain was pretty well got in. It was a remarkably plentiful year for almost all kinds of fruit; the crop of grain was pretty good, especially the barley; and there were great quantities of latter grafs and turnips. In the middle of September the weather grew fairer; it was a fine latter end of the year and wheat seed-time, without too much rain intermixed. As the winter came on, it was chiefly calm, and there was much cloudy or misty weather, scarce any frosty mornings till near the end of November; a short frost then and mild again; but towards the latter half of December it began to be more inclined to frost, and the year ended with a sharp one, and pretty deep snow.



XVIII. *Extract of a Meteorological Journal for the Year*  
*1776, kept at Bristol, by Samuel Farr, M. D.*

Read February 27, 1777.

Months.	Barometer.			
	Higheft.	Lowest.	Mean.	Viciffitude.
January	29,93	29,04	29,53	— 47- $\frac{1}{2}$ +
February	29,74	28,66	29,21	102-2 +
March	30,28	28,80	29,53	110-2 +
April	30,28	29,26	29,85	68-2 —
May	30,30	29,10	29,88	40- $\frac{1}{2}$ —
June	30,20	29,38	29,88	39-1 $\frac{1}{2}$ —
July	30,16	29,30	29,76	40-1 $\frac{1}{2}$ —
August	30,08	29,30	29,68	30- $\frac{1}{2}$ —
September	30,20	20,17	29,72	98-4 +
October	30,18	29,60	29,87	54-1 +
November	30,15	28,90	29,74	65- $\frac{1}{2}$ +
December	30,28	29,26	29,76	32- $\frac{1}{2}$ + rifing. — falling.

An abridged Table of the WINDS, &c. for BRISTOL, for  
the Year 1775.

	N	E	W	S	NW	SE	NE	SW	Rain.	Frosty Days.	Fair Days.	Thunder, &c,
Jan.	0	1	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	$23\frac{1}{2}$	3	3,993	25	6	
Feb.	0	0	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$20\frac{1}{2}$	5,538	1	$5\frac{1}{2}$	5. S.W.
Mar	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	3	$7\frac{1}{2}$	16	1,643	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$	
Apr.	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	4	2	$10\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	0,438	1	18	
May	$2\frac{1}{2}$	2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	4	1	$11\frac{1}{2}$	7	1,149	0	$13\frac{1}{2}$	
June	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	3	2	5	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$	2,554	0	$13\frac{1}{2}$	13. S.
July	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	3	5	1	$18\frac{1}{2}$	2,332	0	13	5. S.E. 19. S.E.
Aug.	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	5	$6\frac{1}{2}$	3	14	4,747	1	$11\frac{1}{2}$	6. N.W. 16. S.W. 30. S.W.
Sept.	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	3	10	$12\frac{1}{2}$	3,270	5	$15\frac{1}{2}$	4. N.W. 8. N.W.
Oct	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	0	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	4	13	$7\frac{1}{2}$	1,686	4	6	
Nov.	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	2	13	$1\frac{1}{2}$	12	2,283	5	$10\frac{1}{2}$	30. S.E.
Dec.	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{2}$	2	10	1,422	9	11	1. S.E.
	$19\frac{1}{2}$	$8\frac{1}{2}$	3	17	34	$59\frac{1}{2}$	$91\frac{1}{2}$	143	31,055	$53\frac{1}{2}$	$137\frac{1}{2}$	

### WEATHER FOR THE YEAR 1776.

January. It rained a little at first; but soon changed to snow, which was succeeded by a hard frost that lasted till the next month.

February. After the thaw it became very wet and tempestuous.

March. Often frosty and fair, with now and then a considerable storm, as on the 8th and 9th.



April. Stormy, although but little rain fell for about half this month; after the 20th it was quite fair.

May. After this it was stormy, with some rain on the 4th, 5th, 6th, 8th, 11th, 19th, and 20th, but not much; the rest of this month was fair.

June. Very wet for 7 or 8 days, and on the 10th, 11th, and 12th, and also from the 14th to 17th; it was then fair to the 23d; rained then and on the 24th and 27th.

July. Very wet and cloudy, with thunder, &c. on the 5th and 19th; very few days fair till the 22d; after which it was in general fair this month.

August. Very fine for a few days; but afterwards it became wet and stormy till the 20th; after which it was in general fair.

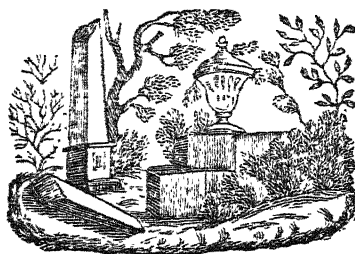
September. Stormy for some days; fair on the 8th and 9th; frosty on the 10th, and then fair to the 15th; wet to the 18th; and then fair to the end.

October. Dry though cloudy, with a little rain for 7 or 8 days; after which it rained part of every day for as many more, and then became variable with some frosty nights.

November. Dry with some frost and fog, but with little rain on the 9th and 11th, and for a fortnight after;

it next became variable, but generally fair; it rained very hard on the 23d and on the 28th.

December. Wet for a few days and then cloudy, but without rain for the first week; it was then dry for a few days; it froze on the 16th, and snow fell on the 18th; the 19th was fair; it rained afterwards to the 23d, and snowed on the 24th; after which a frost set in, and continued till the end.



METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL

KEPT AT THE HOUSE OF

THE ROYAL SOCIETY,

BY ORDER OF THE

PRESIDENT AND COUNCIL.

## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL

for January 1776.

	Time.	Therm. without	Therm. within.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
						Points.	Str.	
	H. M.			Inches.	Inch.			
Jan. 1	8 0	38,5	39,0	29,94		SE	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	41,0	40,0	29,82		S	1	Fine.
2	8 0	41,0	41,5	29,50	0,075	NNW	1	Rain.
	2 0	40,5	41,5	29,69		NNW	1	Cloudy.
3	8 0	36,0	39,5	30,09	0,065	NE	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	37,0	40,5	30,14		E	1	Fine.
4	8 0	39,0	38,5	29,77	0,031	SSE	1	Rain.
	2 0	44,0	40,0	29,50		S	2	Rain.
5	8 0	44,5	43,5	29,40	0,444	SW	1	Fair.
	2 0	48,5	45,5	29,48		WSW	1	Cloudy.
6	8 0	36,0	43,5	29,63		WSW	1	Fine.
	2 10	41,5	44,0	29,57		E by N	1	Fair.
7	8 30	33,0	39,5	29,245	0,153	ENE	2	Rain.
	2 0	31,0	38,0	29,35		ENE	2	Snow.
8	8 0	30,0	34,0	29,46	0,229	NE	1	Much snow last night.
	2 0	32,0	35,5	29,49		N	1	Fair.
9	8 0	30,0	34,5	29,63	0,079	N	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	28,5	33,5	29,67		ENE	1	Cloudy.
10	8 0	30,5	33,5	29,73		NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	33,0	34,0	29,73		NW	1	Cloudy.
11	8 0	30,0	31,5	29,57		E	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	35,0	33,5	29,41		SE	1	Cloudy.
12	8 0	30,0	33,0	29,21	0,091	E	2	Much snow and wind last nt.
	2 0	32,0	34,0	29,21		ENE	2	Snow.
13	8 0	30,0	32,5	29,32		NE	2	Much snow and wind last nt.
	2 0	29,0	32,0	29,36		NE	2	Cloudy.
14	8 0	25,0	30,0	29,45		ENE	2	Snow.
	2 0	26,0	29,0	29,49		NE	2	Snow.
15	8 0	26,0	29,0	29,70		N	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	29,0	30,5	29,70		ENE	1	Snow.
16	8 0	25,5	29,0	29,71		NNE	1	Snow.
	2 0	30,5	30,5	29,70		NE	1	Snow.

## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL.

for January 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Jan. 17.	8	0	28,0	29,5	29,74		NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	30,5	30,5	29,74		NNE	1	Cloudy.
18	8	0	33,0	32,0	29,87		ENE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	30,0	31,5	29,90		ENE	1	Cloudy.
19	8	0	27,0	30,5	29,90		NE	1	Snow.
	2	0	27,0	31,0	29,85		NE	1	Fair.
20	8	0	23,5	29,0	29,70		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	24,0	29,0	29,70		N	1	Fine.
21	8	0	22,0	27,0	29,62		SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	28,5	27,5	29,55		SSW	1	Fine.
22	8	0	30,5	28,5	29,41		E	1	Fair.
	2	0	33,5	30,5	29,39		NE	1	Fine.
23	8	0	25,0	28,5	29,53		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	33,0	30,0	29,58		NNE	1	Snow.
24	8	0	30,0	30,0	29,81		ENE	0	Cloudy.
	2	0	35,0	31,5	29,84		NE by E	1	Fair.
25	8	0	29,0	31,5	29,87		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	33,0	32,5	29,85		SE	1	Fair.
26	8	0	26,0	30,5	29,82		E	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	26,0	30,5	29,82		SSE	2	Fine.
27	8	0	19,5	26,0	29,80		ENE	2	Snow.
	2	0	20,5	25,5	29,79		ENE	2	Snow.
28	8	0	18,5	22,5	29,94		E	2	Snow.
	2	0	22,0	23,0	30,00		E	2	Fine.
29	8	0	14,5	20,0	29,91		SE	1	Fine.
	2	0	24,0	21,5	29,88		SE by E	1	Fair.
30	8	0	15,0	19,5	29,97		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	21,0	20,5	30,02		E	1	Fine.
31	8	0	13,5	19,5	30,09		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	23,5	20,5	30,07		E	1	Fine.

## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL

for February 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Feb. 1	8	0	14,5	19,0	29,97		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	31,5	31,5	29,86		E	1	Cloudy.
2	8	0	37,0	28,5	29,78		NE	0	Cloudy.
	2	0	40,5	31,0	29,57		SE by E	1	Fair.
3	8	0	37,0	34,5	29,34	0,093	SSE	1	Fog.
	2	0	44,0	36,0	29,51		S by W	1	Fine.
4	8	20	44,0	38,5	29,22		SW	2	Cloudy.
	2	0	48,0	41,0	29,22		SW	1	Cloudy.
5	8	0	40,5	42,0	29,16	0,153	WSW	2	Fine.
	2	0	48,0	44,0	29,11		SW by W	2	Fine.
6	8	0	37,0	42,5	28,98	0,221	WSW	2	Fine.
	2	0	45,0	44,0	29,02		WSW	2	Fine.
7	8	0	43,0	42,0	28,91		SW by W	2	Fair.
	2	0	47,5	43,5	29,07		SW	2	Fair.
8	8	0	40,0	42,5	29,66	0,190	SW	1	Rain.
	2	0	49,5	44,5	29,62		SSW	2	Cloudy.
9	8	0	41,0	44,5	29,78	0,190	SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	45,5	45,5	29,58		S	2	Cloudy.
10	8	0	42,0	46,0	28,99	0,524	SW by W	2	Rain.
	2	0	48,0	47,0	28,97		SW	2	Fair.
11	8	0	42,5	45,0	28,84	0,275	SW	2	Fair.
	2	0	45,5	46,0	28,84		SSW	2	Rain.
12	8	0	34,0	42,0	29,10		SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	46,0	44,0	29,24		WSW	1	Fine.
13	8	0	36,5	42,5	29,68		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	47,0	44,0	29,71		WSW	1	Fine.
14	8	0	47,0	45,0	29,51	0,163	SW	2	Fair.
	2	0	51,0	48,0	29,53		S by W	1	Fine.
15	8	0	38,0	44,5	29,96		SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	48,0	46,5	29,91		SSW	2	Fair.
16	8	0	42,0	46,0	29,75	0,085	SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	49,5	47,5	29,78		SW	1	Fair.

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for February 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Feb. 17	8	0	36,0	43,0	29,68	0,021	ENE	1	Rainy.
	2	0	43,5	42,5	29,53		E	1	Fair.
18	7	0	35,5	42,0	29,43	0,270	SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	39,5	42,0	29,25		NE	1	Cloudy.
19	7	0	38,5	42,0	29,34	0,140	SW	1	Rainy.
	2	0	41,5	41,5	29,62		NW	1	Fair.
20	7	0	41,5	40,5	29,775	0,089	S	1	Rainy.
	2	0	50,0	44,0	29,80		W by S	1	Fine.
21	7	0	49,5	45,5	29,58		WSW	2	Cloudy.
	2	0	54,5	49,0	29,50		WSW	2	Fair.
22	7	0	36,5	44,0	29,62	0,412	SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	45,0	45,0	29,41		SSE	3	Rain.
23	7	0	35,0	40,5	29,38	0,148	WSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	45,5	44,0	29,50		WSW	2	Fair.
24	7	0	39,0	41,0	29,25	0,079	SSE	1	Rain.
	2	0	46,0	48,0	29,10		WSW	1	Rain.
25	7	0	37,0	40,0	29,50	0,102	N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	43,0	41,5	29,55		SSW	1	Fair.
26	7	0	46,0	43,5	29,18		SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	53,0	46,5	29,13		S by W	2	Cloudy.
27	7	0	39,5	43,0	29,155	0,149	SSW	2	Cloudy.
	2	0	48,0	45,0	29,26		WSW	2	Fair.
28	7	0	43,0	43,5	29,11	0,140	SSW	2	Fair.
	2	0	47,0	45,5	29,17		SW	2	Fair.
29	7	0	38,0	43,0	29,35	0,066	SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	48,0	45,0	29,35		WSW	1	Fine.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.	
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.		
Mar.	1	7	0	32,0	42,0	29,52	0,080	WSW	1	Fair.
		2	0	45,5	43,5	29,60		NE	1	Fine.
	2	7	0	35,0	41,0	29,75		N	1	Fair.
		2	0	43,0	42,5	29,77		NNE	1	Fair.
	3	7	0	30,5	37,0	29,78		SSW	1	Fine.
		2	0	44,0	40,5	29,67		SSW	1	Fair.
	4	7	0	36,0	38,0	29,49	0,159	N	2	Cloudy.
		2	0	44,5	41,5	29,73		NNW	2	Fair.
	5	7	0	44,0	42,5	29,81	0,058	SW	2	Fair.
		2	0	46,0	44,5	29,85		SW	2	Rain.
	6	7	0	41,5	44,0	29,77	0,314	SE	1	Rain.
		2	0	43,5	44,5	29,58		E	1	Rain.
	7	7	0	39,0	43,0	29,70	0,514	E	1	Cloudy.
		2	0	42,0	43,5	29,59		SSE	1	Rain.
	8	7	0	40,0	45,0	29,25	0,229	SSW	1	Fine.
		2	0	49,0	47,0	29,18		SW	2	Fair.
	9	7	0	43,0	45,5	28,98	0,065	S	2	Fair.
		2	0	50,0	49,0	28,99		SSW	2	Fair.
	10	7	0	40,5	44,5	29,37	0,079	WSW	1	Fair.
		2	0	48,0	46,5	29,50		W	1	Fine.
	11	7	0	35,0	41,0	29,72		NNW	1	Fine.
		2	0	46,0	44,0	29,86		NW	1	Fine.
	12	7	0	41,5	42,0	29,95		SSW	1	Cloudy.
		2	0	49,0	45,0	29,99		SSW	1	Rain.
	13	7	0	46,0	46,5	30,00	0,014	SSW	1	Fair.
		2	0	53,5	49,0	29,86		SSW	1	Fair.
	14	7	0	41,5	45,5	29,83		N	1	Fair.
		2	0	49,0	47,0	29,94		N	1	Fine.
	15	7	0	40,0	45,5	30,03		W	1	Fine.
		2	30	55,0	48,5	30,05		WSW	1	Cloudy.
	16	7	0	43,0	48,0	30,19		N	1	Fine.
		2	0	49,5	49,0	30,21		N	1	Fine.



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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		without	within.	Inches.	Inch	Points.	Str.	
Mar. 17	7	0	38,0	46,0	30,30		S	1	Fine.
	2	0	53,5	48,5	30,30		WSW	1	Fine.
18	7	0	34,0	45,0	30,18		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	53,5	48,0	30,13		SW	1	Fine.
19	7	0	47,0	48,0	30,06		SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	50,0	46,0	30,09		SW	1	Cloudy.
20	7	0	48,0	49,0	30,15		W	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	55,0	52,0	30,23		SSW	1	Cloudy.
21	7	0	43,5	49,5	30,23		E	1	Fine.
	2	0	59,5	53,5	30,20		SW	1	Fair.
22	7	0	49,0	52,0	29,96		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	63,5	60,0	29,95		SSW	1	Fine.
23	7	0	46,5	49,5	29,94		NE	1	Fog.
	2	0	66,0	57,0	29,91		SW by S	1	Fine.
24	7	0	52,5	56,0	29,94		NNE	1	Fair.
	2	0	67,0	59,0	29,99		SE	1	Fine.
25	7	0	45,0	52,0	30,30		ENE	1	Fair.
	2	0	49,0	49,0	30,33		ENE	2	Fine.
26	7	0	37,0	42,0	30,38		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	49,5	46,0	30,33		NE	1	Fine.
27	7	0	33,5	42,0	30,13		NNE	1	Fine.
	2	0	51,5	45,0	30,04		NNE	1	Fine.
28	7	0	41,5	44,5	30,01	0,029	NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	46,0	46,0	30,03		NE	1	Cloudy.
29	7	0	40,0	44,5	30,11		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	47,5	46,0	30,20		NNE	1	Fair.
30	7	0	35,0	44,0	30,37		S	1	Fine.
	2	0	56,5	47,5	30,38		N by W	1	Fine.
31	7	30	44,5	47,5	30,43		WSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	60,5	51,5	30,42		WSW	1	Fine.

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for April 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Apr. 1	7	0	44,0	50,5	30,44		SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	60,0	54,0	30,43		N	1	Fine.
	2	7	0	48,0	53,0	30,37	NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	50,0	54,5	30,34		NE	1	Fine.
	3	7	0	42,5	51,5	30,34	SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	62,0	56,5	30,28		W	1	Fine.
	4	7	0	45,0	51,0	30,22	N	1	Fine.
	2	0	54,0	53,5	30,22		N	1	Fine.
	5	7	0	41,0	48,5	30,22	N	1	Fair.
	2	0	49,0	49,5	30,17		N	1	Fair.
	6	7	0	40,5	46,5	30,145	N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	47,0	48,0	30,11		S, W	1	Cloudy.
	7	7	0	45,5	46,0	30,03	WNW	1	Fair.
	2	0	50,5	48,5	29,94		NW	1	Cloudy.
	8	7	0	45,0	48,0	29,75	WNW	1	Fair.
	2	0	51,5	50,0	29,57		NW	2	Fine.
	9	7	0	39,0	43,5	29,71	0,065 NW	2	Fair.
	2	0	39,0	45,0	29,86		NWbyN	2	Cloudy.
	10	7	0	34,5	41,0	30,13	0,052 N	1	Fine.
	2	0	48,5	44,0	30,16		NNE	2	Fine.
	11	7	0	44,5	44,0	30,21	NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	54,0	48,0	30,21		N	1	Fair.
	12	7	0	44,0	46,0	30,17	NW	1	Fair.
	2	0	53,5	49,5	30,07		WNW	1	Fair.
	13	7	0	45,0	48,5	29,85	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	56,5	52,0	29,80		NW	1	Fair.
	14	7	0	48,5	51,0	29,81	SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	57,0	54,5	29,76		WSW	1	Fair.
	15	7	0	48,5	52,0	29,68	0,010 SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	56,0	53,5	29,68		SW	1	Fair.
	16	7	0	48,5	57,5	29,51	E	1	Fair.
	2	0	62,0	55,0	29,46		S	2	Rain.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Apr. 17	7	0	52,0	55,0	29,58	0,132	S	2	Rain.
	2	0	65,5	60,0	29,64		S	1	Fine.
18	7	0	56,5	58,5	29,64	0,061	S	0	Cloudy.
							SW	1	Fair.
19	7	0	44,5	51,0	29,97		SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	60,5	59,0	30,00		SSW	1	Fair.
20	7	0	48,5	53,0	30,04		SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	59,0	57,5	30,07		W	1	Fair.
21	7	0	47,0	50,5	30,27		N	1	Fine.
	2	0	60,0	57,5	30,30		N by W	1	Fine.
22	7	0	48,5	54,0	30,30		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	63,0	58,5	30,25		N	1	Fair.
23	7	0	48,0	53,5	30,16		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	62,5	59,5	30,09		NE	1	Fine.
24	7	0	48,0	55,0	29,95		NE	1	Fine.
	2	0	64,5	58,5	29,88		ENE	1	Fine.
25	7	0	50,0	57,0	29,86		SE	1	Fair.
	2	0	68,5	62,0	29,88		NW	1	Fine.
26	7	0	43,0	49,5	30,16		N	1	Fine.
	2	0	58,0	55,0	30,19		N	1	Fair.
27	7	0	47,5	51,0	30,30		NW	1	Fine.
	2	0	59,0	55,5	30,30		NE	1	Fine.
28	7	0	46,5	51,5	30,30		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	63,5	57,5	30,20		WSW	1	Fine.
29	7	0	45,5	52,0	30,10		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	56,5	55,5	30,10		NNW	1	Fair.
30	7	0	41,0	46,0	30,18		NNW	1	Fair.
	2	30	50,5	51,0	30,19		NW	1	Cloudy.

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for May 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
May 1	7	0	40,0	47,0	30,21		N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	50,5	49,5	30,21		NNE	1	Cloudy.
2	7	0	49,0	50,0	30,18		W	1	Cloudy.
	3	0	64,5	55,5	30,11		SW	1	Fine.
3	7	0	52,0	55,0	29,70		SW	2	Cloudy.
	2	0	60,5	57,5	29,64		W by S	2	Fine.
4	7	0	46,0	50,0	29,77	0,094	NNW	2	Fine.
	2	0	61,0	55,5	29,65		WSW	1	Fair.
5	7	0	44,5	52,5	29,21	0,105	SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	50,5	54,0	29,14		WSW	2	Fine.
6	7	0	42,0	48,5	29,48	0,242	NW by N	2	Fine.
	2	0	51,5	51,5	29,50		NW	2	Fair.
7	7	0	42,5	48,0	29,76		W by N	1	Fair.
	2	0	50,5	50,5	29,70		N by W	1	Fair.
8	7	0	41,5	48,0	29,66	0,167	N	1	Fair.
	2	0	52,0	51,0	29,67		NNE	2	Fair, Thunder at 1.
9	7	0	45,0	49,0	29,71	0,077	NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	52,0	51,5	29,78		NNE	1	Cloudy.
10	7	0	46,0	50,0	30,00	0,010	SE	1	Fine.
	2	0	58,0	53,0	30,05		ENE	1	Fine.
11	7	0	46,5	52,0	30,18	0,071	N	1	Fine.
	2	0	59,0	55,5	30,22		NNE	1	Fair.
12	7	0	53,0	54,5	30,28		SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	62,0	58,0	30,29		SW	1	Cloudy.
13	7	0	49,0	55,5	30,45	0,067	NE	1	Fine.
	2	0	62,5	57,5	30,46		N by W	1	Fine.
14	7	0	55,0	57,5	30,43		WSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	63,5	61,5	30,36		N by W	1	Fine.
15	7	0	48,0	54,5	30,18		N	1	Rain.
	2	0	55,0	57,0	30,16		N	2	Fair.
16	7	0	46,0	58,0	30,13	0,010	N	1	Fair.
	2	0	54,0	54,5	30,02		N	1	Fine.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
May 17	7	0	47,0	52,0	30,03	0,051	N	1	Fair.
	2	0	55,0	55,0	30,06		N by E	1	Fair.
18	7	0	46,0	51,5	30,06		NE by N	1	Rain.
	2	0	56,0	53,0	29,98		NE	2	Fair.
19	7	0	52,0	52,5	29,91	0,110	E by N	2	Fair.
	2	0	50,0	53,5	29,93		NE	2	Rain.
20	7	0	49,5	53,5	30,10	0,590	NNE	1	Rain.
	2	0	64,0	57,0	30,15		NE	1	Fair.
21	7	0	47,5	53,5	30,255		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	15	58,5	56,0	30,22		NNE	1	Fine.
22	7	0	47,0	53,0	30,15		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	61,5	55,5	30,07		NE	1	Fine.
23	7	0	47,0	52,5	30,08		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	54,0	53,5	30,07		N	1	Fair.
24	7	0	46,5	48,0	30,15		NE	2	Fine.
	2	0	58,5	53,0	30,20		NNW	2	Fine.
25	7	0	44,0	49,5	30,22		S	1	Fine.
	2	0	59,0	53,5	30,16		NNW	1	Fine.
26	7	0	53,0	54,0	30,12		W	1	Fine.
	2	0	65,0	58,5	30,11		WNW	1	Fair.
27	7	0	54,0	57,5	30,09		NW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	64,5	61,0	30,06		SSE	1	Fair.
28	7	0	57,5	59,0	30,04		SE	1	Fine.
	2	0	72,0	64,0	30,02		SW	1	Fine.
29	7	0	61,5	61,5	29,98		SSE	1	Fine.
	2	0	77,5	67,0	29,97		S	1	Fine.
30	7	0	62,0	66,0	29,87		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	66,0	68,0	29,85		S by E	2	Fair.
31	7	0	60,0	65,0	29,86		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	70,5	68,5	29,87		SSW	1	Fair.

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	Time.	Therm. without	Therm. within	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
						Points.	Str.	
	H. M.			Inches	Inch.			
June 1	7 0	58,0	64,5	29,81	0,010	NE	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	60,0	65,5	29,75		E	1	Rainy.
2	7 0	57,5	64,0	29,90	0,215	W	1	Fair.
	2 0	73,0	67,0	29,92		E	1	Fair.
3	7 0	60,0	65,5	29,92	0,070	NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	78,5	70,5	29,92		E	1	Fine.
4	7 0	66,0	70,5	29,83		NNE	1	Fine.
	2 0	74,0	72,5	29,87		SW by W	1	Fine.
5	7 0	61,0	65,0	29,82		SW	1	Fine.
	2 0	63,5	67,5	29,75		SW	1	Cloudy.
6	7 0	56,0	63,0	29,51	0,189	W	1	Cloudy.
	2 0	59,5	65,0	29,48		NW	1	Fair.
7	7 0	52,5	61,0	29,59	0,138	SW	1	Fine.
	2 0	58,0	61,5	29,63		S by W	1	Rain.
8	7 0	55,0	58,0	29,66	0,249	SW	1	Fine.
	2 0	61,5	60,5	29,68		SW	1	Fine.
9	7 0	55,0	58,5	29,85	0,041	S	1	Rain.
	2 0	63,0	61,5	29,87		S	2	Rain.
10	7 0	59,0	61,0	30,00	0,078	SSW	1	Fair.
	2 0	66,5	63,0	30,00		SSW	1	Fair.
11	7 0	58,0	61,5	29,67	0,307	SE	1	Rain.
	2 0	67,0	65,0	29,64		SSW	1	Fair.
12	7 0	57,0	62,0	29,56	0,016	E	1	Rain.
	2 0	65,5	64,0	29,57		SSE	1	Fair.
13	7 0	57,0	59,0	29,61		W	1	Fine.
	2 0	67,5	63,5	29,64		W	1	Fine.
14	7 0	59,5	63,5	29,81		SW	1	Fine.
	2 0	71,0	65,5	29,87		SW	1	Fair.
15	7 0	62,0	65,0	29,80		S	1	Fine.
	2 0	67,0	67,5	29,89		SW	1	Cloudy.
16	7 0	59,0	65,5	29,73		S	1	Rain.
	2 0	62,0	66,0	29,72		SSW	1	Cloudy.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
June 17	7	0	57,0	64,0	29,82	0,230	W	1	Fine.
	2	0	69,5	66,5	29,99		W	1	Fine.
18	7	0	58,0	64,5	30,14		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	67,5	70,0	30,21		NW	1	Cloudy.
19	7	0	61,5	66,0	30,32		N	1	Fine.
	2	0	72,0	69,5	30,34		E	1	Fine.
20	7	0	60,0	63,5	30,27		SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	74,0	68,5	30,19		S	1	Fine.
21	7	0	64,5	65,5	29,94		S	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	72,5	69,5	29,88		SW	1	Cloudy.
22	7	0	60,5	66,5	29,89		WSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	68,5	67,5	29,90		W by S	2	Fair.
23	7	0	58,0	64,5	29,95		W by S	2	Fair.
	2	0	69,5	66,5	29,93		SW	2	Fair.
24	7	0	58,0	54,5	29,76		W	1	Fine.
	2	0	67,0	65,5	29,87		SW	2	Fair.
25	7	0	55,0	62,5	30,03		W	1	Fine.
	2	0	66,0	64,0	30,02		W	1	Fine.
26	7	0	55,0	60,0	29,94		W	1	Fine.
	2	0	68,5	65,0	29,86		NE	1	Cloudy.
27	7	0	56,0	62,0	29,77		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	56,5	63,5	29,79		SE	2	Rainy.
28	7	0	53,5	58,5	29,87	0,465	NNE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	63,0	67,0	29,94		NE	1	Fair.
29	7	0	53,5	59,0	30,03	0,020	N	0	Cloudy.
	2	0	63,0	63,0	30,05		NW	1	Fair.
30	7	0	57,0	62,0	30,01		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	71,0	65,5	29,99		SW by W	1	Fair.

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	Time.	Therm.		Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
		without	within.			Points.	Str.	
	H.M.			Inches	Inch.			
July 1	7	0	55.0	62.0	29.95	W by S	1	Fair.
	2	0	59.0	67.0	30.00	W by S	1	Fair.
2	7	0	60.5	65.0	29.98	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	69.5	68.5	29.98	SW	1	Rain.
3	7	0	55.0	60.0	29.99	0.101 SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	71.5	70.0	29.97	WSW	1	Fair.
4	7	0	64.0	67.5	29.95	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	76.0	72.0	29.91	SW	1	Fair.
5	7	0	70.0	70.0	29.77	S	1	Fine.
	2	0	67.0	71.5	29.74	S by W	1	Rain.
6	7	0	63.0	67.0	29.55	0.419 S	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	65.0	69.5	29.59	SW	1	Rain.
7	7	0	59.5	69.5	29.555	0.039 SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	66.5	68.5	29.62	SSW	2	Cloudy.
8	7	0	58.5	64.5	29.94	0.054 SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	70.0	66.5	29.99	SW	1	Fair.
9	7	0	56.0	64.0	29.995	SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	69.0	66.0	29.96	S by W	1	Fair.
10	7	0	58.5	61.5	29.91	SW by W	1	Fair.
	2	0	74.0	69.0	29.94	SSW	1	Fair.
11	7	0	56.5	65.5	29.84	0.360 ENE	1	Rain.
	2	0	63.0	68.0	29.85	NE by N	1	Fair.
12	7	0	62.0	66.5	29.855	0.150 SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	70.5	69.5	29.80	SW	1	Fine.
13	7	0	61.0	67.0	29.77	0.198 W by N	1	Rainy.
	2	0	70.0	70.0	29.76	W by W	1	Fair.
14	7	0	62.0	67.0	29.85	SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	71.5	69.5	29.80	S by W	1	Fine.
15	7	0	62.5	67.5	29.755	0.092 S	1	Fine.
	2	0	65.5	68.5	29.71	S by W	2	Fair.
16	7	0	63.0	67.0	29.58	0.064 S	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	73.0	70.5	29.61	SW	2	Fine.



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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		wichout	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
July 17	7	0	64,0	69,0	29,66		SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	71,0	70,5	29,71		W by S	1	Fair.
18	7	30	62,0	67,5	29,82		SWbyW	1	Fine.
	2	0	74,0	70,0	29,82		SW	2	Fine.
19	7	0	60,5	65,5	29,74		ENE	1	Fair.
	2	0	76,0	71,5	29,68		S	1	Fair.
20	7	0	63,0	68,0	29,71		W by N	1	Fair.
	2	0	72,5	71,0	29,81		W by N	1	Fair.
21	7	0	63,0	67,0	29,87		SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	69,0	69,0	29,85		SSW	1	Fair.
22	7	0	61,0	65,0	29,80	0,275	E by S	0	Cloudy.
	2	0	66,0	67,0	29,84		NE	1	Cloudy.
23	7	0	59,0	65,0	29,90		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	74,0	79,5	29,95		SWbyW	1	Fine.
24	7	0	63,0	68,5	30,03		SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	67,0	69,5	30,05		S	1	Rainy.
25	7	0	57,0	63,5	30,22		SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	69,0	67,5	30,23		SW	1	Fine.
26	7	0	61,0	67,0	30,13		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	82,0	73,0	30,08		S by W	1	Fair.
27	7	0	62,5	67,5	30,15		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	73,0	70,5	30,18		W	1	Fair.
28	7	0	59,5	67,0	30,22		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	71,5	70,5	30,17		SSW	1	Fair.
29	7	0	62,0	66,0	30,18		NW	1	Fine.
	2	0	72,0	70,5	30,22		W by N	1	Fine.
30	7	0	61,0	65,0	30,31		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	74,0	70,5	30,29		E by N	1	Fine.
31	7	0	62,0	65,0	30,24		SE	1	Fine.
	2	0	75,0	72,0	30,21		E by S	1	Fine.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Aug. 1	7	0	65,0	66,0	30,16		SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	74,0	67,0	30,14		S by W	1	Fine.
2	7	0	67,0	68,5	30,13		E	1	Fair.
	2	0	86,0	77,0	30,09		S	1	Fine.
3	7	0	62,0	72,5	30,09	0,052	W by S	1	Fine.
	2	0	76,0	75,0	30,06		N	1	Fine.
4	7	0	63,5	68,5	30,03		W by N	1	Fair.
	2	0	73,0	73,0	30,00		NNW	1	Fair.
5	7	0	66,0	70,5	29,92		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	79,5	74,5	29,85		WSW	1	Fine.
6	7	0	63,5	71,5	29,77		NW	1	Fair.
	2	0	72,0	72,5	29,73		W by N	1	Fair.
7	7	0	56,0	64,0	29,82		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	67,5	67,0	29,84		W	1	Fair.
8	7	0	55,0	61,0	29,64	0,262	SE	1	Rainy.
	2	0	65,0	64,5	29,76		NW	1	Fine.
9	7	0	59,5	63,5	29,80	0,067	SE by S	1	Fine.
	2	0	66,5	66,0	29,71		SSE	2	Cloudy.
10	7	0	57,0	63,5	29,53	0,452	SSW	1	Rainy.
	2	0	66,0	65,5	29,65		W	2	Fair.
11	7	0	67,0	65,0	29,76	0,129	SE	1	Fair.
	2	0	66,5	66,5	29,71		S	1	Rain.
12	7	0	60,0	64,0	29,75	0,306	SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	66,5	66,0	29,73		S by W	1	Rain.
13	7	0	59,0	64,0	29,70	0,169	SW by S	1	Fine.
	2	0	67,5	68,0	29,70		W	2	Fine.
14	7	0	55,5	63,5	29,96	0,054	SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	71,5	68,0	29,98		SW	1	Fine.
15	7	0	64,5	67,0	29,88	0,022	SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	73,5	71,5	29,80		SW by S	1	Fine.
16	7	0	63,0	67,5	29,61	0,161	S by W	1	Rain.
	2	0	69,5	70,0	29,63		SSW	2	Fair.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Aug. 17	7	0	55,0	63,0	29,76	0,201	WSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	67,0	66,0	29,81		WSW	2	Fair.
18	7	0	54,0	62,0	29,875	0,018	W	1	Fine.
	2	0	69,5	65,5	29,88		W	1	Fine.
19	7	0	61,5	64,0	29,64	0,139	S	1	Rain.
	2	0	69,5	68,0	29,64		SW	1	Fair.
20	7	0	59,0	65,5	29,69	0,250	W by S	2	Fair.
	2	0	67,5	67,0	29,82		W by S	2	Fine.
21	7	0	57,5	63,0	30,08		ENE	1	Fair.
	2	0	67,0	67,0	30,09		NE	1	Fine.
22	7	0	54,5	58,0	30,07		NNW	1	Fine.
	2	0	67,0	65,5	30,06		NW	1	Fine.
23	7	0	57,0	62,5	30,06		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	70,0	66,5	30,05		NE	1	Fine.
24	7	0	54,0	62,0	30,06		W by N	1	Fine.
	2	0	64,5	64,5	30,07		NW	1	Fair.
25	7	0	53,0	61,0	30,10		W	1	Fine.
	2	0	66,0	64,0	30,13		NW	1	Fine.
26	7	0	57,5	61,5	30,07		E	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	67,0	66,0	30,03		S	1	Cloudy.
27	7	0	57,0	62,5	29,93	0,050	E	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	64,5	66,5	29,93		E	1	Fair.
28	7	0	53,0	60,0	29,85		NE	1	Fine.
	2	0	69,5	65,5	29,84		SE	1	Fair.
29	7	0	59,0	62,0	29,55	0,050	S by E	1	Rainy.
	2	0	69,0	67,5	29,99		SW	1	Fair.
30	7	0	57,0	64,5	29,60	0,136	S	1	Fine.
	2	0	66,0	67,5	29,60		SW	1	Fair.
31	7	0	54,0	63,5	29,69	0,022	SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	70,0	68,5	29,66		SSW	1	Fine.

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		Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
		without		within.						
		H. M.				Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Sept.	1	7	0	55,5	54,0	29,48	0,120	SW	1	Fine.
		2	0	68,5	68,5	29,52		SSW	2	Fine.
	2	7	0	58,5	64,5	29,30	0,248	S	2	Fine.
		2	0	63,5	67,5	29,26		SW	2	Fine.
	3	7	0	56,0	62,5	29,29	0,358	SW	1	Rainy.
		2	0	63,0	60,0	29,41		SSW	2	Cloudy.
	4	7	0	55,0	62,5	29,41	0,064	SW	1	Fair.
		2	0	63,0	65,5	29,49		W by N	1	Fine.
	5	7	0	51,0	61,0	29,65	0,054	SW	1	Fair.
		2	0	63,0	65,0	29,72		NW	1	Fair.
	6	7	0	53,0	60,5	29,92	0,045	SSW	1	Fair.
		2	0	65,5	65,0	30,00		W by S	1	Fair.
	7	7	0	52,5	60,0	29,84		S	1	Fine.
		2	0	66,5	65,5	29,75		S by E	1	Fair.
	8	7	0	50,0	61,0	29,48	0,160	SW	1	Fair.
		2	0	57,5	63,5	29,48		NW	1	Fine.
	9	7	0	48,0	57,0	29,90	0,058	N by W	1	Fine.
		2	0	66,5	63,5	29,97		NE	1	Fine.
	10	7	0	53,0	60,0	30,11		N	1	Cloudy.
		2	0	63,0	63,5	30,12		SSW	1	Fair.
	11	7	0	57,0	61,5	30,10		SW	1	Fine.
		2	0	68,5	66,5	30,11		SW	1	Fair.
	12	7	0	60,0	64,0	30,07		SSW	1	Cloudy.
		2	0	68,5	68,0	30,08		S	1	Fair.
	13	7	0	57,0	64,5	30,07		S	1	Fair.
		2	0	67,0	67,0	30,00		S by W	1	Fine.
	14	7	0	57,0	64,0	29,90		NW	1	Fair.
		2	0	64,0	68,0	29,92		NW	1	Fair.
	15	7	0	51,5	62,5	29,99		NE	1	Cloudy.
		2	0	61,0	65,0	29,88		NE	1	Cloudy.
	16	7	0	61,5	53,0	29,91	0,377	NW	1	Cloudy.
		2	0	61,5	64,5	29,98		W by N	1	Fine.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Sept. 17	7	0	55,0	62,0	29,99		WSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	54,5	63,0	29,84		E by N	1	Rain.
18	7	0	49,0	57,5	29,86	0,638	N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	57,0	61,0	29,94		N	2	Fair.
19	7	0	47,0	54,0	30,05	0,082	N	1	Fair.
	2	0	50,0	57,5	30,12		NE	1	Rain.
20	7	0	44,5	52,5	30,25	0,178	NNE	1	Fine.
	2	0	52,0	57,5	30,26		NNE	1	Fine.
21	7	0	43,0	52,0	30,30	0,160	N	1	Fine.
	2	0	57,5	57,0	30,35		E	1	Fair.
22	7	0	46,5	52,5	30,33		NNE	1	Fair.
	2	0	59,0	57,5	30,23		E	1	Fine.
23	7	0	45,5	53,5	29,99		NE	1	Fine.
	2	0	60,0	58,0	29,92		NE	1	Fair.
24	7	0	48,0	55,0	29,91		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	63,5	60,5	29,71		NE	1	Fine.
25	7	0	54,0	57,5	29,70		SE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	66,0	62,5	29,57		SE	1	Fine.
26	7	0	56,5	61,5	29,30	0,131	S	1	Fine.
	2	0	63,0	65,0	29,30		S	2	Fair.
27	7	0	48,0	58,5	29,55		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	61,0	62,5	29,64		S by W	1	Fine.
28	7	0	57,0	60,0	29,52	0,019	SSW	1	Rain.
	2	0	62,0	63,0	29,59		SW	1	Fine.
29	7	0	49,5	59,0	29,80		WNW	1	Fine.
	2	0	61,5	62,5	29,97		NE	1	Fine.
30	7	0	51,0	58,0	29,99		NNE	1	Fair.
	2	0	61,5	62,5	30,00		NE	1	Fine.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Oct. 1	7	0	52,0	58,5	29,92		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	59,5	62,0	29,92		ENE	1	Fair.
	2	7	54,5	60,0	30,05		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	66,5	64,5	30,10		NNE	1	Fair.
	3	7	55,0	62,0	30,21		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	60,0	64,0	30,21		N	1	Cloudy.
	4	7	53,0	65,0	30,10		SSE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	58,0	63,0	29,98		NW	1	Fair.
	5	7	46,5	57,5	29,83		WNW	1	Fair.
	2	0	56,5	60,5	29,80		NNW	1	Fair.
	6	7	44,5	55,0	29,78		NNE	1	Fair.
	2	0	55,0	57,5	29,77		NNW	1	Fine.
	7	7	42,0	52,0	29,76		SSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	58,5	57,5	29,65		SW	2	Rain.
	8	7	49,0	55,0	29,84	0,020	S	1	Fair.
	2	0	61,0	59,5	29,75		S	2	Cloudy.
	9	7	43,5	54,5	30,17	0,012	S	1	Fine.
	2	0	58,0	58,5	30,23		WSW	2	Fine.
	10	7	57,0	58,5	30,12		WSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	66,5	63,5	30,18		W	1	Fair.
	11	7	53,0	60,0	30,17		WSW	1	Fine.
	2	0	62,5	64,5	30,19		NNW	1	Fair.
	12	7	49,5	58,5	30,28		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	57,5	61,5	30,32		NE	1	Fine.
	13	7	52,0	58,0	30,28		SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	58,5	62,0	30,24		NW	1	Cloudy.
	14	7	51,0	59,0	30,17		W	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	57,0	61,5	30,16		S	1	Cloudy.
	15	7	57,5	58,5	30,16		NNW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	57,0	61,5	30,10		SE	1	Cloudy.
	16	7	44,0	53,5	29,92		NE	1	Foggy.
	2	0	61,0	60,0	29,88		S by E	1	Fair.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H	M	without.	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Oct. 17	7	0	58,0	60,0	29,80		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	58,0	62,5	29,85		NNW	1	Rain.
18	7	0	43,5	55,0	30,23	0,152	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	59,0	60,0	30,19		S	1	Fine.
19	7	0	52,5	57,0	29,86		E by N	1	Foggy.
	2	0	61,5	61,5	29,80		S	1	Rain.
20	7	0	56,0	59,0	29,73		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	56,0	62,0	29,84		W by N	1	Rain.
21	7	0	46,0	55,5	30,01	0,356	SSE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	59,0	60,0	29,97		S by E	1	Fine.
22	7	0	55,5	58,0	29,99		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	65,0	64,0	30,04		S	1	Rain.
23	7	0	55,0	60,0	30,10		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	56,0	62,0	30,12		NE	1	Cloudy.
24	7	0	56,0	60,0	30,14		E by N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	55,0	61,5	30,14		NE	1	Cloudy.
25	7	0	51,0	56,5	30,01		NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	54,0	59,0	29,93		NE by E	1	Fair.
26	7	0	48,0	54,0	29,84		N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	51,0	56,5	29,85		NNE	1	Fair.
27	7	0	43,5	51,5	29,90		NNW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	52,0	55,5	29,93		N	1	Fine.
28	7	0	38,0	49,5	30,04		NE	1	Fair.
	2	0	51,0	55,0	30,04		E	1	Fine.
29	7	0	49,0	52,5	30,03		SE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	53,0	55,5	30,00		ESE	1	Rain.
30	7	0	49,0	54,0	30,01	0,194	SE	1	Fair.
	2	0	54,0	57,5	30,06		SSE	1	Fine.
31	7	0	43,0	51,0	29,85		ENE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	48,0	53,5	29,89		NE	1	Fine.

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	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Nov. 1	7	0	37,5	47,5	29,94		E	1	Fair.
	2	0	50,0	52,0	29,82		S by E	1	Fair.
2	7	0	39,0	48,5	29,78	0,165	SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	49,5	52,0	29,78		W by N	1	Fair.
3	7	0	33,5	45,0	30,06		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	44,0	49,0	30,11		SW	1	Fair.
4	7	0	38,5	44,5	30,16		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	54,0	50,0	30,14		S	1	Fine.
5	8	0	49,0	50,0	30,18		SSW	1	Fair.
	2	0	54,0	54,0	30,19		NNW	1	Cloudy.
6	8	0	36,0	47,5	30,17		NE	1	Foggy.
	2	0	44,0	50,5	30,10		NE	1	Fair.
7	8	0	40,0	46,5	30,02		NE	1	Foggy.
	2	0	51,5	51,0	30,00		NE	1	Foggy.
8	8	0	40,0	49,0	30,01		NE	1	Foggy.
	2	0	54,0	56,0	29,98		NE	1	Foggy.
9	8	0	40,5	47,0	29,92		N by E	1	Foggy.
	2	0	55,0	51,5	29,92		S by E	1	Fair.
10	8	0	49,0	51,5	29,97		SE	1	Foggy.
	2	30	52,5	54,5	29,97		S	1	Cloudy.
11	8	0	49,0	53,5	29,90		S	1	Fair.
	2	0	50,5	56,0	29,85		SE	1	Cloudy.
12	8	0	42,0	52,5	30,02	0,136	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	52,0	55,5	30,11		W by S	1	Fine.
13	8	0	48,0	53,0	30,13		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	55,5	56,5	30,13		SW	1	Fine.
14	8	0	52,5	55,5	30,23	0,010	SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	57,0	58,5	30,21		SW	1	Cloudy.
15	8	0	48,5	55,5	30,22	0,025	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	56,0	57,5	30,12		SW	1	Fair.
16	8	0	57,5	58,0	29,73		SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	55,0	59,5	29,95		SW	1	Cloudy.



## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL

for November 1776.

	Time.		Therm. without	Therm. within.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H.	M.			Inches	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Nov. 17	8	0	45,5	55,0	29,67	0,010	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	49,5	56,0	29,77		W	1	Fair.
18	8	0	42,0	50,0	29,87		W	1	Fair.
	2	0	51,5	53,0	29,74		SW	1	Fair.
19	8	0	49,0	53,0	29,71		S	0	Rain.
	2	0	52,0	55,0	29,67	0,140	SE	1	Rain.
20	8	0	53,0	56,0	29,32		SW	2	Fair.
	2	0	58,0	59,5	29,36	0,089	SW	2	Rain.
21	8	0	40,0	49,5	29,70		WNW	2	Fine.
	2	0	45,0	51,0	29,75	0,080	SW	1	Fine.
22	8	0	33,0	45,0	29,94		SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	43,0	48,0	29,89		W	1	Fair.
23	8	0	40,0	45,5	29,36		S by E	1	Rain.
	2	0	43,5	48,0	29,23	0,840	SE	1	Rain.
24	8	0	36,0	44,0	29,61		N by E	2	Fair.
	2	0	42,0	46,5	29,94	0,176	NW	2	Fine.
25	8	0	33,0	41,0	30,16		N	1	Fine.
	2	0	41,0	45,0	30,20		N by E	1	Fine.
26	8	0	28,0	39,5	30,39		E by N	1	Foggy.
	2	0	37,0	43,5	30,31		NE	1	Fine.
27	8	0	31,0	37,0	30,09		E	1	Frosty.
	2	0	36,0	40,0	29,97		SE	1	Fair.
28	8	0	34,0	48,5	29,655		SE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	35,0	42,0	29,52		SE	1	Cloudy.
29	8	0	38,0	40,5	29,11		SE	1	Rain.
	2	0	46,5	45,0	29,11		SE	1	Cloudy.
30	8	0	41,0	45,5	29,37	0,520	SW	1	Rain.
	2	0	47,0	40,0	29,44		SW	1	Fine.

## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL

for December 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds.		Weather.
	H. M.		without	within.	Inches.	Inch.	Points.	Str.	
Dec. 1	8	0	50,0	50,0	29,48	0,222	S	2	Fair.
	2	0	54,0	54,0	29,69		SSW	2	Cloudy.
2	8	0	47,0	51,5	30,04		SE	1	Rain.
	2	0	52,5	54,5	29,97		E	1	Fair.
3	8	0	44,5	51,5	29,985		E	1	Foggy.
	2	0	51,0	54,0	29,96		SE	1	Fair.
4	8	0	50,5	53,5	29,95		SSW	1	Foggy.
	2	0	55,0	56,0	29,97		S by W	1	Cloudy.
5	8	0	49,5	50,0	30,01		SE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	53,0	56,0	30,06		N by E	1	Cloudy.
6	8	0	47,0	54,5	29,95	0,052	NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	48,0	55,0	29,91		NE	1	Cloudy.
7	8	0	42,0	50,0	29,95		ENE	1	Fair.
	2	0	43,5	52,0	29,97		S by E	1	Fine.
8	8	0	43,0	47,0	30,05		E	1	Fair.
	2	0	50,5	52,0	30,06		SE	1	Fair.
9	8	0	42,0	49,5	30,10		SSE	1	Fine.
	2	0	44,0	49,5	30,11		SE	1	Fine.
10	8	0	42,0	47,0	30,20		S	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	46,0	48,5	30,25		SW	1	Cloudy.
11	8	0	46,0	48,5	30,35		SW	1	Fine.
	2	0	53,0	51,5	30,41		SW	1	Fine.
12	8	0	49,0	52,0	30,42		SW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	57,5	52,5	30,39		W	1	Cloudy.
13	8	0	47,0	57,5	30,34	0,057	NE	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	47,0	52,0	30,32		NE	1	Rain.
14	8	0	46,0	50,5	30,33	0,055	SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	47,0	51,0	30,27		SE	1	Cloudy.
15	8	0	39,0	47,0	30,09		SE	1	Fair.
	2	0	42,0	47,0	29,99		SW	1	Cloudy.
16	8	0	40,0	46,0	29,73	0,409	N	1	Rain.
	2	0	44,0	46,0	29,73		NW	1	Fine.

## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL

for December 1776.

	Time.		Therm.	Therm.	Barom.	Rain.	Winds		Weather.
	H.	M.	without	within.	Inches	Inch	Points.	Str	
Dec. 17	8	0	30,0	41,0	29,755	0,020	NNW	1	Fine.
	2	0	36,0	41,0	29,755		NW	1	Fine.
18	8	0	26,0	35,0	29,59		WNW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	32,0	35,0	29,55		S by W	1	Frofty.
19	8	0	38,0	36,5	29,16	0,139	W by N	2	Rain.
	2	0	40,0	3,0	29,32		W	1	Fair.
20	8	0	35,0	37,0	29,47		SSW	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	36,0	39,0	29,47		NE	1	Rain.
21	8	0	52,0	39,0	29,69	0,109	SW	1	Rain.
	2	0	54,0	41,0	29,58		SW	1	Rain.
22	8	0	52,0	46,0	29,765	0,053	WSW	2	Cloudy.
	2	0	54,0	40,0	29,84		WSW	1	Fair.
23	8	0	42,0	48,0	29,87	0,050	SW	1	Fair.
	2	0	46,5	48,5	29,81		WNW	1	Fine.
24	8	0	39,0	44,0	29,57	0,022	NW	2	Fair.
	2	0	39,0	44,0	29,51		W by N	2	Rain.
25	8	0	35,5	38,5	29,77	0,047	NW	2	Fine.
	2	0	39,0	40,0	29,82		N by W	1	Fine.
26	8	0	30,0	33,5	29,81		N	1	Fine.
	2	0	36,0	37,0	29,76		NE	1	Rain.
27	8	0	33,0	36,0	29,98		N	1	Cloudy.
	2	0	36,0	37,0	29,87		NE	1	Cloudy.
28	8	0	29,0	35,0	30,00		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	33,0	35,0	30,02		NNE	1	Fair.
29	8	0	32,0	33,5	29,73		N	1	Fair.
	2	0	36,5	34,5	29,64		W by N	1	Fair.
30	8	0	32,0	34,5	29,47	0,040	N	1	Snowy.
	2	0	24,0	34,0	29,49		N by E	1	Fine and frofty.
31	8	0	25,0	30,5	29,71		N	1	Fair and frofty.
	2	0	31,0	31,0	29,88		NW	1	Fair and frofty.

1776.	Thermometer without.			Thermometer within.			Barometer.			Rain.
	Greatest Height.	Least Height.	Mean Height.	Greatest Height.	Least Height.	Mean Height.	Greatest Height.	Least Height.	Mean Height.	Inches.
January	44,5	13,5	29,3	43,5	20,5	31,8	30,14	29,21	29,687	1,157
February	49,5	14,5	42,6	46,0	19,0	42,4	29,97	28,84	29,408	3,510
March	52,0	30,5	45,9	56,0	37,0	46,4	30,43	28,98	29,91	1,541
April	56,5	34,5	50,3	58,0	41,0	51,2	30,44	29,46	29,542	0,320
May	62,0	40,0	54,3	66,0	47,0	54,9	30,46	29,14	29,999	1,594
June	66,0	32,5	62,4	70,5	54,5	64,2	30,34	29,48	29,87	2,028
July	70,0	55,0	65,9	70,0	60,0	68,3	30,31	29,55	29,913	1,752
August	67,0	53,0	64,2	72,5	58,0	66,1	30,16	29,53	29,546	2,540
September	61,5	43,0	57,2	64,5	52,0	66,1	30,35	29,26	29,83	2,712
October	58,0	42,0	53,8	65,0	51,0	53,4	30,32	29,65	30,00	0,734
November	57,0	28,0	45,0	58,0	37,0	49,9	30,39	29,11	29,878	1,191
December	52,0	25,0	42,0	57,5	30,5	45,0	30,42	29,16	29,882	1,275
Whole Year,			51,1			52,9			29,789	20,354

## VARIATION-NEEDLE.

	7 h. A.M.	12 h. M	2 h. P.M.	10 or 11 h. P.M.	Daily Mean.
June 21			21 52	21 45	21 49
22	21 38	21 49	21 52	22 20	21 55
23	21 43	21 42	21 43	21 47	21 44
24	21 41	21 49	21 54	21 36	21 45
25	21 57	21 54	21 53	21 41	21 51
26	21 43	21 47	21 49	21 33	21 43
27	21 38	21 48	21 50	21 37	21 43
28	21 43	21 47	21 40	21 37	21 42
29	21 59	21 51	21 45	21 36	21 48
30	21 39	21 49	21 44	21 34	21 42
July 1	22 00	21 51	21 50	21 40	21 50
2	21 36	21 50	21 54	21 46	21 47
3	21 59	21 49	21 50	21 46	21 51
4	21 40	21 55	21 52	21 47	21 49
5	21 40	21 56	21 56	21 46	21 49
6	21 40	21 50	21 53	21 35	21 49
7	22 00	21 49	21 49	21 53	21 53
Means,	21 46	21 50	21 50	21 43	
Mean of all 21 47.					

DIPPING-NEEDLE.

	7 h. A.M.	12 h. M.	2 h. P.M.	10 or 11 h. P.M.	Mean.	
June 21	0 /	0 /	0 /	0 /	0 /	
22	72 22	71 40	71 40	71 45	71 43	West mark up- permost.
23	71 45	71 50	71 45	71 30		
24	71 50	71 35	71 45	71 35		
25	71 37	73 10	73 00	72 45		
26	73 20	72 50	73 05	73 00	73 01	East.
27	<del>73 05</del>	<del>73 00</del>	<del>73 15</del>	<del>72 20</del>		
28	73 10	71 50	71 50	71 50		
29	72 05	72 20	72 00	71 40		
30	71 35	71 50	71 50	72 10	71 56	East mark down.
July 1	72 00	71 50	71 50	71 50		
2	71 55	70 50	71 52	71 50		
3	71 50	71 50	71 55	72 00		
4	72 00	71 57	73 10	73 30		
5	73 20	73 25	73 20	73 30	73 22	West.
6	73 30	73 24	73 20	73 20		
7	73 25	73 15	73 20	73 25		
					72 30	

# ERRATA IN VOL. LXVI.

Page. Line.

- 140. 3. from the bottom, *for* Grifons *read* Grifones
- 144. 2. from the bottom, *for* Elinot *read* Klinot
- 613. 20. *for* viz. green, *read* viz. white and pearly, green, &c.
- 618. 11. *for* these *read* the
- Ibid. 15. *for* fine collection *read* few collections
- 620. 17. *for* Poulasent *read* Poulacent
- Ibid. 18. *for* Tschoppan *read* Tschoppau
- Ibid. 20. *for* Freiburg *read* Friebourg
- 621. 10. *for* powder *read* powdered





\*\*\* There are SIX PLATES in the FIRST PART of the PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS, Vol. LXVII. But the SECOND of them, containing Two distinct Subjects, is numbered TAB. II. at the Head, and TAB. III. below.—This is mentioned, left the Binder, attending to the Number at the Head only, should suppose the THIRD Plate to be wanting.



PHILOSOPHICAL  
TRANSACTIONS.

PART II.

VOL. LXVII.

D d d



PHILOSOPHICAL  
TRANSACTIONS,  
OF THE  
ROYAL SOCIETY  
OF  
L O N D O N.

V O L. LXVII. For the Year 1777.

P A R T II.



L O N D O N,

PRINTED BY J. NICHOLS, SUCCESSOR TO MR. BOWYER;  
FOR LOCKYER DAVIS, PRINTER TO THE ROYAL SOCIETY.  
MDCCLXXVIII.



# C O N T E N T S

T O

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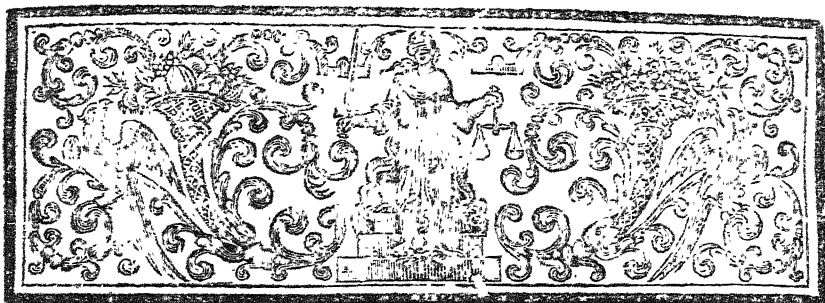
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PHILOSOPHICAL  
TRANSACTIONS.

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XX. *An Account of a Volcanic Hill near Inverness. In a Letter from Thomas West, Esq. to Mr. Lane, F. R. S.*

DEAR SIR,

Bath,  
Oct. 27, 1776.

Read Dec. 12,  
1776.

AS you seem desirous to have a more particular account of the lava, which I left at your house on my return from my tour in Scotland, I herewith send it you. At the same time I must own, that the little attention paid to so extraordinary a phenomenon, and which seems to prove beyond a doubt the existence of volcanos in this country, is to me matter of great surprize.

The hill from whence I took the specimens of lava which I have the pleasure to send you, is about a mile

and an half distant from Inverness, and is called by the inhabitants Creck Faterick, or Peter's Rock: the lower part of it is chiefly ploughed up; the upper part is extremely steep, craggy, and very difficult of access, and appears to me to have evident marks of having been a volcano, as by much the greatest part of the largest rocks on it have been either strongly calcined or fused, as will, I think, plainly appear by these specimens, some of which I picked up on the sides of the hill, others I broke off from the solid rock with a pick-axe (though not without great difficulty, on account of the extreme hardness of the rock); and others I dug out from the summit of the hill, at the depth of four feet, lying in a rich, light, black mould, which, after having been exposed to the air for some time, turned to a whitish ash colour.

On the summit of this hill (which commands a most beautiful and extensive prospect) is a small plane, ninety paces long, by twenty-seven wide, surrounded by rocks, from six to eight feet high, like a breast-work, extremely craggy, and difficult of access on the outside, but rising from the center, in the inside, to the top of the breast-work, with a gentle slope of turf, equal to any of the finest on our sheep downs. This I at first thought might have been the crater; but the smoothness of the inside seeming not to favour this opinion, I carefully examined

every part of the hill, in hopes of finding some marks of one, but without success. There are, indeed, several small caves, but of no great depth, which seem to be formed by the hanging rocks on the sides, near the top of the hill. There is also a small spring about fifty yards from the top of the hill, but it was almost dry when I saw it, which was the latter end of July. I could not get, from the best inquiries I was able to make, any account of this extraordinary phenomenon, no person in Inverness (except one gentleman of that city) having ever taken the least notice of it; nor can I find that any mention has ever been made of it in history, though it seems probable that there has been at least one more in this part of the country; as a gentleman near Dingwall, which is about twenty miles from Inverness, assured me, that there were many stones on a hill near his house which they called the vitrified fortification, that had the same appearance with those at Creck Faterick; but that no person had ever taken any particular notice of them<sup>(a)</sup>.

I am, &c.

(a) The specimens sent with the above letter to the Royal Society, having been examined by some members well acquainted with volcanic productions, were by them judged to be real lava; and it was their opinion, that if a great quantity of the like substance be found on the hill from whence these pieces were taken, the hill most probably owes its origin to a volcano. J. P.



XXI. *New Electrical Experiments and Observations; with an Improvement of Mr. Canton's Electrometer. By Mr. Tiberius Cavallo, in a Letter to Mr. Henly, F. R. S.*

DEAR SIR,

Islington,  
February 8, 1777.

Read March 13,  
1777.

TOGETHER with this letter I send you an account of some electrical experiments I have lately made, and most of which have been successfully repeated in your presence. As you did me the honour to mention, in your last paper to the Royal Society, some remarks I had made on Mr. VOLTA's machine, I hope you will farther oblige me by presenting this account to that learned Body, if you think it contains any thing deserving the attention of the curious.

I am, &c.

*Experiments on Mr. VOLTA's plates, commonly called a machine for exhibiting perpetual electricity.*

THE following experiments, which shew how both sides of an electric plate are affected in different circumstances, were principally made with a plate which measured six inches and a quarter in diameter, and which consisted of a circular piece of thick glass coated on one side with sealing-wax<sup>(a)</sup>.

If, after having excited the sealing-wax, I lay the plate with the wax upon the table, and the glass uppermost, that is, contrary to the common method; then, on making the usual experiment of putting the metal plate on it, and taking the spark, &c. I observe it to be attended with the contrary electricity; that is, if I lay the metal plate upon the electric one, and, while in that situation, touch it with an insulated body, that body acquires the

(a) Having constructed several of those plates, with a view to discover which substance would answer the best for coating the glass plate, I observed that the easiest to be made, and the strongest in power, are those made of the second sort of sealing-wax. It is remarkable, that sometimes they will not act well at first, but they may be rendered very good by scraping with the edge of a knife their shining or glossy surface. This seems analogous to the well-known property of glass, which is, that new cylinders or globes made for electrical purposes are often very bad electrics at first, but that they improve by being worked, that is, by having their surface a little worn.

positive electricity, and the metallic removed from the electric plate appears to be negative.

This experiment, I find, answers in the same manner if an electric plate be used which has the sealing-wax coating on both sides; for, whichever side of this is excited, it will act like the waxed side of the above described plate, that is, will render the metal plate set on it positive, and the opposite side will render it negative.

If, instead of laying the electric plate upon the table, it be placed upon an electric stand so as to be accurately insulated, then the metal plate set on it acquires so little electricity that it can only be discovered with an electrometer; which shews, that the electricity of this plate will not be conspicuous on one side of it, if the opposite side be not at liberty either to part with, or acquire more of, the electric fluid. In consequence of this experiment, and in order to ascertain how the opposite sides of the electric plate would be affected in different circumstances, I made the following experiments.

Upon an electric stand I placed a circular tin plate, nearly six inches in diameter, which by a slender wire communicated with an electrometer of pith-balls, which was also insulated; I then placed the excited electric plate of six inches and a quarter diameter upon the tin plate, with the wax uppermost, and on removing my hand from  
from



from it, the electrometer which communicated with the tin plate, that is, with the under side of the electric plate, immediately opened with negative electricity. If by touching the electrometer I take that electricity off, the electrometer will not afterwards diverge. But if now, or when the electrometer diverges, I present my hand open, or any other uninsulated conductor, at about one or two inches over the electric plate, without touching it, then the pith-balls diverge; or, if they diverged before, they come together, and immediately diverge again with positive electricity.—Remove the hand, and the balls come together; approach the hand, and they diverge, and so on.

If while the pith-balls diverge with negative electricity, I put the metal plate upon the wax, the balls approach each other for a little time, but soon open again with the same, that is with negative electricity.

If, whilst the metallic lies upon the electric plate, I touch the former, the electrometer immediately diverges with positive electricity, which if by touching the electrometer I take off, the electrometer continues without divergence. I touch the metal again, and the electrometer opens again; and so on for a considerable number of times, until the metal plate has acquired its full charge. On taking now the metal plate up, the electrometer

meter instantly diverges with strong negative electricity.

I repeated the above experiments with this only difference in the disposition of the apparatus: I put the electric plate with the excited sealing-wax upon the circular tin-plate, and the glass uppermost: and the difference in the result was, that where the electricity was positive in the former disposition of the apparatus, it now became negative, and *vice versa*; except that, when I first lay the electric plate upon the tin plate, the electrometer diverged with negative electricity as well in this as in the other disposition of the apparatus.

All the above experiments have been repeated with an electric plate, which, besides the sealing-wax coating on one side, had a strong coat of varnish on the other; and their result has been similar to those when the above described plate was used.

### *Experiments on colours.*

Having accidentally observed that an electric shock, sent over the surface of a card, marked a black stroke upon a red spot on the card, I was from this induced to try what would be the effect of sending shocks over cards painted with different water colours. Accordingly

I painted several cards with almost every colour I had, and sent shocks over them when they were very dry: the effects were as follows<sup>(b)</sup>:

Vermillion was marked with a strong black track, about one-tenth of an inch wide.

Carmine received a faint and slender impression, of a purple colour.

Verdigrase was shaken off from the surface of the card.

White lead was marked with a strong black track, not so broad as that on vermillion.

Red lead was marked with a faint mark much like carmine.

The other colours I tried were, orpiment, gamboge, sap-green, red ink, ultramarine, Prussian blue, and a few others, which were compounds of the above, but they received no impression.

It having been insinuated, that the strong black mark, which vermillion receives from the electric shock, might possibly be owing to the great quantity of sulphur contained in that mineral, I was induced to make the following experiment. I mixed together equal quantities of orpiment and flower of sulphur, and with this mix-

(b) The force employed was the full charge of one foot and a half of coated glass.

ture, by the help, as usual, of very diluted gum-water, I painted a card; but the electric shock sent over this left not the least impression.

Desirous of carrying this investigation on colours a little farther, I procured some pieces of paper painted on both sides with oil colours<sup>(c)</sup>, and sending the charge of two feet of coated glass over each of them, I observed that the pieces of paper painted with lamp-black, Prussian blue, vermillion, and purple brown, were torn by the explosion; but white lead, Naples yellow, English ochre, and verdigrease, remained unhurt.

The same shock sent over a piece of paper, painted very thick with lamp-black and oil, left not the least impression. I sent the shock also over a piece of paper, unequally painted with purple-brown, and the paper was torn where the paint laid very thin, but remained unhurt where the paint was evidently thicker.

Having repeated those experiments several times, and with some little variation, they were attended with different effects; however, they all seem to point out the following proposition.

I. A coat of oil-paint over any substance, defends it from the effects of such an electric shock as would otherwise injure it; but by no means defends it from the force

(c) The colours were mixed with linseed oil.

of every electric shock that can be given. II. No one colour seems preferable to the others, if they be equal in substance, and equally well mixed with oil; but a thick coating does certainly afford a better defence than a thinner one.

By rubbing the above mentioned pieces of paper, I find that the paper painted with lamp-black and oil is more easily excited, and acquires a stronger electricity than the papers painted with the other colours; and perhaps on this account it may be, that lamp-black and oil might resist the shock somewhat better than the other paints.

It is remarkable, that vermilion receives the black impression, when painted with oil, nearly as well as when painted with water. The paper painted with white lead and oil receives also a black mark, but its nature is very particular. The track, when first made, is almost as dark as that marked on white lead painted with water; but it gradually loses its blackness, and in about two hours after it appears without any darkness, and when the painted paper is laid in a proper light appears only marked with a colourless track, as if made by a fingernail.

*Promiscuous Experiments.*

Considering what a strong spark is obtained from the metal plate belonging to Mr. VOLTA's machine, when not the least spark can be obtained from the electric plate itself, I was naturally induced to make use of the above mentioned metallic plate in discovering the electricity of very weak electrics, which otherwise would be either in-observable, or so little as not to permit its quality to be ascertained. Accordingly, by the use of this plate, I obtain a very sensible electricity from the hairs of my legs and of my head, or the head of almost any other person, when stroaked.

In this manner I obtain so strong sparks from the back of a cat, a hare's skin, a rabbit's skin, a piece of paper, or a piece of new flannel, that I can presently charge a coated phial with either of those, and so strongly as to pierce a hole through a card with its discharge.

I have often observed, that, when stroaking a cat with one hand I hold it with the other, I feel frequent smart pricklings on different parts of that hand which holds the animal. In these circumstances very pungent sparks may be drawn from the tips of the ears of the cat.

Smooth glass rubbed with a rabbit's skin, dry and warm, acquires, I find, the negative electricity; but if the skin is cold, the glass is excited positively.

New white flannel has also such strong electric power, that sometimes I have excited smooth glass negatively with it.

Considering the strong electric power of new white flannel, I thought that a piece of it rolled round the globe of an electrical machine would perhaps give a stronger electricity on the prime conductor than the glass itself. In order to try the truth of my supposition, I tied a large piece of flannel dry and warm round the globe of the machine; and for a rubber I applied the palm of my hand, then turned the winch, first slowly, and afterwards briskly; but, contrary to my expectation, I observed that the electricity at the prime conductor, although positive, was so weak, that the index of your electrometer was not moved. Surprised at this event, I resolved to take off the apparatus; but I was more surprised when, on removing the flannel from the globe, the former appeared so strongly positive, that it darted several sparks to my arm and other contiguous bodies; and the latter remained so strongly negative, that your electrometer upon the prime conductor instantly elevated its index to about  $45^{\circ}$ . I repeated this experiment several

ral.

ral times, and the effect was always the same. The electricity of the flannel and of the glass, therefore, balanced each other.

Having had occasion to coat a ten-ounce phial, I stuck the inside coating, which was of brass filings, with varnish, agreeable to the directions given by some writers on electricity. This phial remained about a week unused; but it happened, that, whilst I was charging and discharging it for some experiments, I observed that on making a discharge it exploded with a greater noise than usual, the cork with the wire being at the same time blown out of the neck of it. Being intent upon the main experiments in hand, I omitted to examine the phenomenon of the phial. I replaced the cork on it, and went on charging and discharging it again; but it had not been charged above three or four times more, when I observed that, on making a discharge, the varnish that stuck to the brass filings was in a flame, which burned the bottom and sides of the cork considerably, and occasioned a good deal of smoke and flame to come out of the bottle. You will recollect, that I repeated this experiment in the presence of yourself, Mr. ADAMS, and Mr. COVENTRY, when it succeeded perfectly; but the varnish was this time so far burnt, that the brass filings, which  
by



by the combustion had changed their colour, were almost all dropped to the bottom of the phial.

I shall conclude this paper with the description of a pocket electrometer which I have lately constructed, and which, on several accounts, seems preferable to those of the most sensible sort now in use. The case and handle of the electrometer is formed by a glass tube about three inches long, and three-tenths of an inch in diameter; half of which is covered with sealing-wax. From one extremity of this tube, that is, that without sealing-wax, a small loop of silk proceeds, which serves occasionally to hang the electrometer on a pin, &c. To the other extremity of the tube, a cork is adapted; which, being cut tapering on both ends, can fit the mouth of the tube with either extremity. From one extremity of this cork two threads proceed, a little shorter than the length of the tube, suspending each a little cone of pith of elder. When this electrometer is to be used, that end of the cork which is opposite to the threads is pushed into the mouth of the tube, then the tube forms the insulated handle of the pith electrometer, as appears in fig. 1. When the electrometer is to be carried in the pocket, then the threads are put into the tube, and the cork stops it, as is represented in fig. 2. The peculiar advantages

advantages of this electrometer are, its convenient small size, its great sensibility, and its continuing longer in good order than any other I have yet seen, as you have yourself experienced <sup>(d)</sup>. To preserve this electrometer from injury, it should be carried in a tooth-pick case, or some other of the like sort.

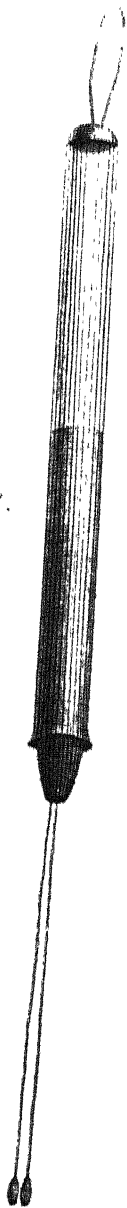
(d) I have lately constructed a portable electrometer of another kind, which is contrived so as not to be affected by the wind or the rain, and consequently is very convenient to examine the electricity of the clouds out of doors in time of thunder-storms: but I shall take another opportunity to present to the Royal Society a particular description of the same.







*Fig: 1.*



*Fig: 2.*





XXI. *Barometrical Observations on the Depth of the Mines in the Hartz.* By John Andrew de Luc, F. R. S. *In a Letter to Sir John Pringle, P. R. S.*

S I R,

Pimlico,  
Feb. 8, 1777.

Read March 20, 1777. I HAVE the honour to lay before you some observations on the Barometer, which I made during my short journey into Germany; and beg, if you think them worthy its attention, that you would communicate them to the Royal Society.

I sat out with the hopes of being able to make a short excursion into the Hartz, to visit some of the mines there. These I knew were extremely deep; and it made me very desirous to try in them my rules for measuring heights

*Observations Barométriques sur la Profondeur des Mines du Hartz.*  
*Par Jean Andrée de Luc, Membre de la Société Royale, &c. dans une Lettre au Chevalier Baronet Pringle, Pref. de la Soc. R.*

MONSIEUR,

J'AI l'honneur de vous faire part de quelques observations du Baromètre, que j'ai faites dans un petit voyage en Allemagne; vous priant de les communiquer à la Société Royale, si vous les trouvez dignes de son attention.

En partant pour ce voyage, j'avois l'espérance de faire une excursion dans le Hartz pour y visiter quelques unes de ses mines. Je savois qu'elles étoient fort profondes; et par conséquent j'avois grande envie d'y essayer mes

heights by the Barometer, that I might know whether in those pits (where exhalations of all kinds spread themselves) the condensations of the air follow the same laws that they do out of them.

I nearly miscarried in this interesting operation through an accident which had happened to my Barometer. Having lent it to a friend, when I came to examine it a little before my setting out, I found that air had somehow got into it. Luckily I had time enough to take it to pieces and make the quicksilver boil in it; a circumstance which I only mention in order to observe, that I succeeded so thoroughly in this manœuvre, that, from that time to this, the quicksilver has always adhered to the summit of the tube as often as I have raised it to it, just in the same manner as it adheres by the ebullition. It requires a shake to make it descend: and sometimes

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règles pour la mesure des hauteurs par le Baromètre; pour savoir si dans ces puits, où des exhalaisons de tant d'espèces se répandent, les condensations de l'air suivroient les mêmes loix qu'au dehors.

Je faillis à manquer cette intéressante opération par un accident arrivé à mon Baromètre. Je l'avois prêté; et lorsque-je l'examinai à la veille de mon départ, je trouvai qu'on y avoit laissé entrer de l'air. J'eus le tems heureusement de le démonter, et d'y faire bouillir le mercure: circonstance dont je ne fais mention, que pour ajouter; que je réussis si parfaitement dans cette opération, que dès ce moment, pendant tout mon voyage, et jusqu'à aujourd'hui, le mercure a toujours continué de s'attacher au sommet du tube, lorsque je l'y ramène; comme il s'y attache au moment de l'ebullition: et il n'en descend que par une secouille.



sometimes the column breaks beneath the summit, and there remain only some lines of the quicksilver suspended to the top.

It is for barometers cleared of air to this degree that my *formule* have been determined: and I had the satisfaction to find that they answered in the Hartz just as they had done upon the mountains in the neighbourhood of Geneva, where they took their origin.

Another remarkable circumstance which relates to the Barometer itself is as follows. Having occasion for corresponding observations in some places of my rout, I applied to observers who had good Barometers; amongst which I met with one of Mr. DOLLOND's. These Barometers I compared with my own, being well assured beforehand, that I should find a difference in the heights indicated, from the circumstance of their having cisterns  
at

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secousse. Quelquefois même la colonne se rompt au dessous du sommet, et il ne reste que quelques lignes de mercure suspendu.

C'est pour des Baromètres purgés d'air à ce point, que mes formules ont été déterminées: aussi ont-elles réussi dans le Hartz, tout comme dans les montagnes des environs de Genève, où elles ont pris naissance.

Voici encore, Monsieur, une circonstance remarquable, qui regarde le Baromètre même. Ayant eu besoin en quelques endroits de ma route, d'observations correspondentes, je m'adressai à des amateurs, qui avoient de bons Baromètres. J'en trouvai un entr' autres de M. DOLLOND. Je comparai ces Baromètres au mien, étant bien assuré de trouver de la différence dans la hauteur indiquée; parcequ'ils avoient des réservoirs en bas; ce qui fait que la colonne baromè-

at the bottom, which makes the barometrical column always shorter in these than it is in a plain tube in the form of a syphon, as I have shewn in my treatise on the *Modifications of the Atmosphere*. Accordingly this was the case in all these Barometers; they did all stand lower than mine, but varied from each other, according to particular circumstances, depending chiefly on the diameter of the tube, and the figure of the cistern.

In going from Hanover to the Hartz I went through Gottingen, where I did not stop then, because I wished to make use of the fine weather. I left it therefore without having settled any thing about corresponding observations of the Barometer, Professor LICHTENBERG having been kind enough to undertake the care of procuring them for me; the comparison of the instruments being deferred till my return. Professor ERXLEBEN was accordingly

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trique y est toujours plus courte, que dans un tuyau simple en forme de syphon; comme je l'ai expliqué dans mon Ouvrage sur les *Modifications de l'Atmosphère*. C'est aussi ce que je trouvai dans tous ces Baromètres: ils se tenoient tous plus bas que le mien; mais diversement, suivant quelques circonstances particulières, dépendantes principalement du diamètre du tube, et de la figure du réservoir.

En allant de Hanovre au Hartz, je passai par Gottingue, où je ne m'arrêtai point alors, parce que je voulois profiter du beau tems. J'en partis donc, sans avoir rien déterminé pour des observations correspondantes du Baromètre; M. le Professeur LICHTENBERG ayant bien voulu se charger du soin de m'en procurer; et renvoyant à mon retour la comparaison des instrumens. Il s'adressa pour cet effet à M. le Professeur ERXLEBEN; parce qu'il avoit un Baromètre fait d'un simple tube

ingly applied to by him, because he had a Barometer made of a single bent tube upon the principle of mine. During my journey Mr. ERXLEBEN was so good as to observe this Barometer very frequently; and it is from his observations that the heights of some of the places of the Hartz, which I shall mention, have been determined.

At my return, I placed my Barometer near that of Mr. ERXLEBEN; and, when they were exposed to the same temperature, there was found no difference between them.

This example, joined to all those with which my own experience has furnished me for a long time past, makes me more and more solicitous that the lovers of natural philosophy would fix the scale of their Barometers with cisterns (very convenient ones no doubt for common use) by comparing them with a Barometer made in the form of

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tube recourbé, sur la principe du mien. M. ERXLEBEN eut la bonté d'observer très fréquemment ce Baromètre pendant mon voyage; et c'est d'après ses observations, que j'ai déterminé les hauteurs de quelques endroits du Hartz dont je ferai mention.

A mon retour j'apportai mon Baromètre auprès de celui M. ERXLEBEN; et quand ils furent réduits à la même température, il ne se trouva entr'eux aucune différence.

Cet exemple se joignant à tous ceux que mes propres expériences m'ont fourni depuis long tems, me fait desirer toujours davantage que les Physiciens veuillent bien fixer l'échelle de leurs Baromètres à réservoir (très commodes sans doute pour l'usage ordinaire) en les comparant à un Baromètre fait en forme de siphon;

of a syphon, and not by any immediate measure commencing at the level of the quicksilver in the cistern. This is the surest method to render exactly correspondent those observations which are made with Barometers which one cannot compare together; at the same time that the barometrical height expressed by Barometers of this form is the only true one; that is to say, the only one which, after the correction for the heat, expresses the weight of the air, by the height of a column of quicksilver of a given density, with which it is really in equilibrio.

I shall begin the account of my observations of the Barometer in the Hartz by those which I made in places, the height of which is ascertained.

Knowing that the ore is drawn up in pales from the pits of the mines, I thought at first that it would  
be

et non par une mesure immédiate, qui parte du niveau du mercure dans le réservoir. C'est le plus sûr moyen de rapporter avec exactitude les unes aux autres, des observations faites avec des Baromètres que l'on n'a pu comparer; en même tems que la hauteur barométrique exprimée par les Baromètres de cette forme, est la seule vraie; c'est à dire la seule qui, après la correction pour la chaleur, exprime le poids de l'air par la hauteur d'une colonne de mercure de densité donnée, avec laquelle il est réellement en équilibre.

Je commencerai, Monsieur, le récit de mes observations du Baromètre dans le Hartz, par celles que j'ai faites en des lieux dont la hauteur est connue.

Sachant que l'on monte le minerai dans des seaux, par les puits des mines, j'avois cru d'abord qu'il me seroit possible de mesurer ces profondeurs au cordeau;

et

be easy to measure their depths with a line, and I had accordingly provided myself with all the necessary implements for that purpose; but when I arrived at Clausthal, the principal place of the King's mines, I found that those pits, being dug in the direction of the veins of ore, are too inclined to make such a mode of mensuration practicable.

At first this gave me great concern, because I had my experiments much at heart; but I was soon made easy by Baron REDEN, captain-general of the mines. "You do not want these measures," said he, "since it is  
" of much more consequence to us, than it can possibly  
" be to you, to know exactly the depth of all the points  
" of these mines. Without such knowledge, how could  
" we direct ourselves in boring from one to the other?" This consideration did in fact dispel all the scruples which had made me desirous of measuring the depths  
myself,

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et je m'étois muni des choses nécessaires à cet effet. Mais lorsque je fus arrivé à Clausthal, chef lieu des mines du Roi, j'appris que ces puits, creusés dans la direction des filons, sont trop inclinés pour que cette espèce de mesure soit possible. J'y eus d'abord beaucoup de regret; parce que j'avois fort à cœur ces expériences: mais M. le Baron DE REDEN, capitaine-général des mines, me tranquillisa bientôt. "Vous n'avez pas besoin de mesurer," me dit-il, "il nous  
" importe bien plus qu'à vous de connoître exactement la profondeur de tous  
" les points de ces mines. Sans cela, comment nous dirigerions-nous, pour  
" percer de l'une à l'autre?" Cette considération en effet, fit disparaître pleine-  
ment

myself, and by so doing gave me time for a greater number of observations.

The first of this kind were made in three mines in the environs of Clausthal; called the Dorothea, the Caroline, and the Benedict. Mr. DE REDEN and Mess. HELZENER and FRIEDRICH, chief officers of the miners, went down with me; and, whilst we were penetrating into the bowels of the mountain, Mr. LEYSER, syndic of the mines, and a lover of meteorological observations, was observing every quarter of an hour, at the top of the pit into which we had descended, a barometer and thermometer which have been since compared with mine.

I had observed my Barometer at the mouth of the Dorothea pit when we were going into the mine at half an hour after eleven in the morning; I observed it  
at

ment les scrupules qui m'avoient fait desirer de mesurer moi-même ces profondeurs; ce qui me facilita un plus grand nombre d'observations.

Les premières de ce genre furent dans trois mines contiguës des environs de Clausthal; nommées la Dorothee, la Caroline, et la Bénédicte. M. DE REDEN et Mess. HELZENER et FRIEDRICH, premiers officiers des mineurs, se donnèrent la peine d'y descendre avec moi: et tandis que nous nous enfonçons dans le sein de la montagne, M. LEYSER, syndic des mines, et amateur des observations météorologiques, observa de quart d'heure en quart d'heure, au haut du puits par lequel nous étions descendus, un baromètre et un thermomètre, qui furent depuis comparés aux miens.

J'avois observé mon Baromètre en entrant dans les mines à 11 $\frac{1}{2}$  h. du matin, au haut du puits de la Dorothee; je l'observai au fond de ce puits à 1 $\frac{1}{4}$  h.; au  
fond

at the bottom of this pit at a quarter past one o'clock; at the bottom of the Caroline, at a quarter past three o'clock; in the lowest searching gallery of the Benedict, at six o'clock; and again, at the mouth of the Dorothy, on our return, at seven o'clock. During the seven hours and a half that we had staid in the mines, the greatest variation of the Barometer had not exceeded a quarter of a line; and Mr. LEYSER's observations indicated the times when this variation had taken place.

At my return I calculated these observations, and gave the results to Baron REDEN, in order that the subterraneous Geometer might compare them with the registers which are kept of the depths of all these mines. The following are the results of these calculations, the particulars of which I likewise send you.

The

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fond de celui de la Caroline à 3 $\frac{1}{2}$  h.; dans la galerie de recherche la plus basse de la Benedicte à 6 h.; et enfin je l'observai encore à 7 h. étant de retour à l'entrée du puits de la Dorothée. Pendant les 7 $\frac{1}{2}$  h. que nous étions restés dans les mines, la plus grande variation avoit été d'1 ligne; et les observations de M. LEYSER me marquoient les tems où cette variation s'étoit faite.

Au retour je calculai ces observations, et j'en remis les résultats à M. le Baron DE REDEN, pour les faire comparer par le Geomètre souterrain, avec les registres tenus de toutes les profondeurs dans les mines. Voici, Monsieur, les résultats de ces calculs, dont j'ai l'honneur de vous envoyer aussi les détails.

French toises.

The depth of the Dorothy pit between two fixed points,	} 168,96
That of the Caroline, relatively to the same point at the mouth,	} 170,74
That of the lowest searching gallery of the Benedict, relatively to the same point,	} 143,96

Mr. FRIEDRICH was appointed to give me the geometrical measures. He had been present at my observations, and found the results of them so near those measures, considering they had been furnished by a method so easy, and according to his notions so extraordinary, that he gave me a certificate in due form of the real heights, which are as follows:

The

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	Toises de Fr.
La profondeur du puits de la Dorothée, entre deux points fixes,	168,96
Celle du puits de la Caroline, relativement au même point d'en haut,	170,74
Celle de la galerie de recherche la plus profonde de la Benedicte, de même,	143,96

Ce fut M. FRIEDRICH, qui fut chargé de me communiquer les mesures géométriques. Il avoit été témoin des observations; et il en trouva les résultats si près de ces mesures, pour avoir été fournis par une route si aisée et si singulière à ses yeux, qu'il m'expédia un certificat en deux formes de ces hauteurs réelles: elles étoient comme suit:



	Lachters.
The depth of the Dorothy, from the points of obfervation,	172,31
That of the Caroline,	173,92
The gallery of the Benedict,	144,79

I could not at first judge of the agreement of the two meafures, becaufe it was neceffary to know the relation between the Lachter and the French Toife. I had brought with me a very accurate half Toife, which we compared with the half Lachter, and found the latter fhorter than the former in the proportion of 61 to 62.

Reducing then, according to this proportion, the geometrical meafures above mentioned into French toifes, we fhall have,

The

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	Lachters, ou toifes du Hartz.
Le puits de la Dorothée en partant des points des obfervations, —	172,31
Celui de la Caroline, — — — —	173,92
La galerie de la Benedicte, — — — —	144,79

Je ne pus pas juger d'abord du rapport des deux mefures, parcequ'il falloit connoître celui de la Lachter avec la Toife de France. J'avois apporté avec moi une demi Toife fort exaéte; nous la comparâmes à la demi Lachter, et nous trouvâmes celle-ci plus courte que la demi Toife dans le rapport de 61 à 62.

En reduifant donc fuivant ce rapport, les mefures geometriques ci-deffus en Toifes de France, nous aurons:

	French toises.
The pit of the Dorothy,	169,53
That of the Caroline,	171,12
The gallery of the Benedict,	142,42

The geometrical measures come then very near the barometrical ones, for they only differ by

	Toises.
In the first observation,	0,57 short.
In the second,	0,38 short.
In the third,	1,54 excess.

I was really surprized to have come so near to the geometrical measures (which, as I shall have occasion to mention hereafter, may be looked upon as the real heights) for I had imagined, that the exhalations of all kinds

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	Toises de l'r.
Le puits de la Dorothee, — — —	169.53
Celui de la Caroline, — — —	171,12
La galerie de la Benedicte, — — —	142,42

Les mesures geometriques s'approchent alors de bien près des mesures barométriques; puisque celles-ci diffèrent seulement des autres savoir :

	Toise.
Dans la première observation de,	0,57 en défaut.
Dans la seconde de,	0,38 aussi en défaut.
Dans la troisième de,	1,54 en excès.

Je fus réellement surpris d'avoir approché de si près des mesures geometriques; qui, comme j'aurai occasion de le dire ensuite, peuvent être regardées comme des hauteurs réelles. Car j'avois imaginé, que les exhalaisons de toute espèce  
qui

kinds in the mines must in some measure affect the common laws of the air's elasticity in different degrees of heat, if not its absolute elasticity. On reflecting, however, on this singular conformity of the air in mines with the external air, I soon found the cause of it in the extreme care taken to procure a circulation of external air in the mines, in order to prevent the pernicious effects of the exhalations: so that the same means, which really preserve the health of the miners in their subterraneous abodes, give the air which circulates in them, and more especially that of the pits in which are the principal currents, the properties of the external air as to barometrical measurements. Doubtless this is the cause of that interesting phenomenon, as satisfactory for the security it gives to the lives of the miners, as for the application of the laws of aërometry: this was again confirmed by observations I made some days after in other  
mines,

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qui se répandent dans les mines, devoient y altérer les loix communes de l'élasticité de l'air en différens degrés de chaleur; et peut-être son élasticité absoluë. Mais en réfléchissant ensuite sur cette singulière conformité de l'air des mines, avec l'air extérieur, j'en apperçus la cause dans le soin extrême qu'on prend d'y faire circuler l'air extérieur, pour empêcher les mauvais effets des exhalaisons. Ainsi les mêmes moyens qui conservent réellement la santé des mineurs dans leurs demeures souterraines, donnent à l'air qui y circule, et surtout dans les puits, où sont les principaux courants, les propriétés de l'air extérieur dans les mesures barométriques. C'est là sans doute la cause de cet intéressant phénomène, aussi tranquillisant sur le sort des mineurs, que sur l'application des règles à l'aërométrie. Ce qui se confirme encore par d'autres observations que je fis  
quelques

mines, where indeed I met with some irregularities, but not such as might have been expected from barely considering the local circumstances.

These mines are in the Ramelsberg near Goslar. The ore that is chiefly extracted from them, as well as from those of Clausthal, is lead; but they are worked in another manner. The vein of ore, which is near eighteen toises broad, is extremely impregnated with pyrites: inasmuch that, when you heat it, the vapour of the sulphur, which disengages itself, bursts the stone, which falls down in large fragments. The method then is to light great fires against the rock; and, when they are extinguished, the miners assist with their instruments the fall of the stones, that may still remain suspended.

Sulphureous vapours, therefore, constantly disengaged from the heated ore, circulate in the caverns of the mountain,

quelques jours après dans d'autres mines, où je trouvai quelque irrégularité, mais non point suivant ce que les circonstances locales sembloient devoir en produire.

Ces mines sont dans le Ramelsberg, près de Goslar. Elles fournissent principalement du plomb, comme celles de Clausthal; mais on les exploite d'une autre manière. Le filon, qui a près de 18 toises de largeur, est extrêmement pénétré de pyrite; tellement qu'en l'échauffant, les vapeurs du soufre qui se dégage, font crêvailler la pierre, qui tombe d'elle-même en grand lambeaux. On allume donc de grand feux contre le rocher; et lorsqu'ils sont éteints, les mineurs aident avec des instrumens, la chute des pierres qui sont encore suspendues.

Il se détache donc presque constamment du minerai échauffé, des vapeurs sulfureuses, qui circulent dans les cavernes de la montagne, et dans les puits et  
souterrains

mountain, and in the vents and pits by which they communicate with each other. The day I entered them, was a day of rest for the miners; and there was no other fire but that which Mr. ROEDER, their principal, was kind enough to order to be lighted, that I might form an idea of this method of working mines. Notwithstanding this, I could perceive here and there sulphureous vapours, which in some places were even strong enough to occasion a very troublesome sensation of suffocation. In some places I felt the remainder of the heat communicated to the rock from whence these vapours were exhaled; and in some caverns, where the fire had only been put out the evening before, FAHRENHEIT's thermometer rose to  $110^{\circ}$ . But this very heat is a most powerful ventilator, as it makes the external air circulate in these mines. Indeed the currents of air are so rapid in them, that one is obliged to have

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soupiraux par lesquels ces cavernes communiquent les unes aux autres. Le jour que j'y entrâi étant un jour de repos pour les mineurs, il n'y eut de feu dans les mines, que celui que Mr. ROEDER leur chef eut l'honnêteté de faire allumer pour me donner une idée de cette exploitation. Cependant j'apercevois ça et là des vapeurs de soufre; et souvent même elles étoient assez fortes, pour m'occasionner un sentiment de suffocation très pénible. Quelquefois aussi j'éprouvois les restes de la chaleur communiquée au rocher d'où ces vapeurs s'exhaloient: et dans quelques cavernes où le feu n'étoit éteint que dès la veille, le thermomètre de FAHRENHEIT, monta jusqu'à  $110^{\circ}$ : mais cette chaleur même est un ventilateur très puissant, pour faire circuler l'air extérieur dans ces mines. Aussi les courants d'air y sont-ils si rapides, qu'on est obligé d'avoir des portes à

have doors at the entrance of each gallery, and sometimes many of them one after an other, without which it would not be possible to keep any lamps lighted in these subterraneous regions.

It is probably to this constant renewal of the air, that the miners of Ramelsberg are indebted for the good health they enjoy, notwithstanding the prodigious heat they feel while they are at work, and the quantity of sulphur which exhales from every part; and it is likewise probably from this cause that my barometrical observations gave me the heights more exactly than I could have expected from these circumstances. The following are the results of these observations, the particulars of which you likewise have subjoined.

Height

l'entrée de toutes les galeries; et quelquefois même plusieurs de suite; sans quoi il ne seroit pas possible de tenir les lampes allumées dans ces souterrains.

C'est sans doute à ce renouvellement continuel de l'air, que les mineurs du Ramelsberg doivent la bonne santé dont ils jouissent, malgré la chaleur prodigieuse qu'ils éprouvent pendant le tems de leur travail, et la quantité de soufre qui s'exhale de toute part: et c'est aussi probablement la cause, de ce que mes observations du Baromètre, me donnèrent les hauteurs, plus exactement que je ne l'attendois d'après ces circonstances. Voici, Monsieur, les résultats de ces observations, dont vous avez aussi les détails ci-joint.

Hauteur

French toises.

Height of the gallery of Breitling, above the bottom of the pit of Kaunkuhl,	} 44,41
Height of the entry of the mines, above the gallery of Breitling,	} 27,04
Height of the top of the pit of Kaunkuhl, above the entry of the mines, by external observations,	} 41,27
<hr/>	
Depth of the pit of Kaunkuhl, measured in three parts, one of them without the mines,	} 112,72
<hr/>	
Depth of the same pit, determined by imme- diate observations made at the top and the bottom,	} 113,13

I could not get the geometrical measures the same day, because there was not time enough left to look for them

	Tois. de Fr.
Hauteur de la galerie de Breitling, sur le fond de puits de Kaunkühl,	44,41
Hauteur de l'entrée des mines, sur la galerie de Breitling,	27,04
Hauteur du haut du puits de Kaunkühl, sur l'entrée des mines, par des observations extérieures,	} 41,27
<hr/>	
Profondeur du puits de Kaunkühl, mesuré en trois portions, dont une à l'extérieur des mines,	} 112,72
<hr/>	
Profondeur du même puits, déterminée par des observations immé- diates, au fond et au haut,	} 113,13

Jé ne pus pas avoir d'abord les mesures géométriques; parce qu'il ne resta pas  
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them then. But the day after Mr. ROEDER sent them to Mr. DE USLER, Comptroller of the treasure, who had been kind enough to accompany me to Ramelsberg, and in all my subterraneous rambles. Mr. ROEDER likewise came with us; he took notes of the places where the observations were made, and sent the following measures, which I have reduced into French toises.

	French toises.
Height of the gallery of Breitling, above the bottom of the pit of Kaunkuhl,	46,86
Height of the entry into the mines, above the gallery of Breitling;	25,76
Height of the top of the pit of Kaunkuhl, above the entry of the mines,	41,32
	<hr/> 113,94

Hence

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assez de tems pour les chercher le même jour. Mais dès le lendemain M. ROEDER les envoya à M. DE USLER, Controleur du trésor, qui avoit eu la bonté de me conduire au Ramelsberg et dans toute ma route souterraine. M. ROEDER nous y avoit accompagnés; il avoit pris note des lieux où s'étoient faites les observations; et il envoya les mesures ci-après, que j'ai seulement changées en Toises de France.

Hauteur de la galerie de Breitling, sur le fond du puits de Kaunkühl,	46,86
Hauteur de l'entrée des Mines sur la galerie de Breitling,	25,76
Hauteur du haut du puits de Kaunkühl sur l'entrée des mines,	41,32
	<hr/> 113,94



Hence it follows, that in the measurement of the total height of the pit, the barometrical measure differed from the geometrical one by 0,81 toise, or about  $\frac{1}{140}$  in defect; that in the measurement of a part only of this height, made without the mine, it differed only by 0,05, or about  $\frac{1}{800}$ , likewise in defect; but that in the two other portions of the height, taken within the mine, it differed in the one by  $\frac{1}{18}$  in defect, and in the other by  $\frac{1}{11}$  in excess: and hence we observe, that the absolute errors are only of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  toises and  $1\frac{1}{4}$  toise; and that these small differences may have arisen from some fault in the observation, as well in small heights as in greater ones: and in this case, where the errors are in defect and excess, it is probable that they arise from some such cause; and that the sulphureous vapours have little or nothing to do with them.

Having

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Il résulte de là, que sur la hauteur totale du puits, la mesure barométrique a différé de la mesure géométrique, de 0,81 toise, soit d'environ  $\frac{1}{140}$ , en défaut; que dans la mesure d'une partie de cette hauteur, faite en dehors des mines, elle n'a différé que de 0,05, soit d'environ  $\frac{1}{800}$ , aussi en défaut: mais que dans les deux autres portions de la hauteur, prise sans l'intérieur de la mine, elle a différé dans l'une d' $\frac{1}{18}$  en défaut, et dans l'autre d' $\frac{1}{11}$  en excès. Sur quoi il faut remarquer; que les erreurs absolues ne sont que de  $2\frac{1}{2}$  toises, et d' $1\frac{1}{4}$  toise; et que ces petites différences peuvent résulter de quelque défaut dans l'observation, aussi bien sur de petites, que sur de grandes hauteurs. Et dans ce cas-ci, où les erreurs sont en excès et en défaut, il est bien probable qu'elles tiennent à cela, et que les vapeurs sulfureuses n'y entrent pour rien de sensible.

Having made these experiments within the mines, I was desirous of making some in the open air, which I had soon a very agreeable opportunity of doing; for having communicated my desire to Mr. REDEN, he and Mr. RAUSCH, the principal of the subterraneous geometers, were so good as to be of the party. The latter had had occasion to determine most accurately the height of two external points of the Hartz, relatively to the mines of Clauffthal and Zellerfeld. Nothing more, therefore, was required but to observe the Barometer at the entry of a certain mine, which was a fixed point, and to observe it again at these two external points; one of which was about 3000 toises horizontal distance, beyond a small hill; and the other, 5000 toises off, entirely without the Hartz.

We

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Après avoir fait ces expériences dans l'intérieur des mines, je desirois beaucoup d'en faire aussi en plein air. L'ayant témoigné à M. DE REDEN, il m'en fournit un moyen très agréable; car lui même, et M. RAUSCH chef des géomètres souterrains, furent de la partie. Ce dernier avoit eu besoin, à l'occasion d'un projet de galerie d'écoulement, de déterminer avec la plus grande exactitude la hauteur de deux points extérieurs au Hartz, relativement aux mines de Clauffthal et de Zellerfeld. Il ne s'agissoit donc que de faire l'observation du Baromètre à l'entrée d'une certaine mine, qui étoit un point fixe; et de l'aller faire ensuite à ces deux points extérieurs; dont l'un étoit à environ 3000 toises de distance horizontale, au de là d'une colline, et l'autre à 5000 toises, entièrement au dehors du Hartz.

We carried this project into execution on the 30th of October, when I found the following heights by the calculations hereunto annexed.

	French toises,
Height of the entry of the mine, called Alte Seegen, above a certain point in the valley of Bremeke,	102,18
Height of the entry of the same mine, above another point near Lasfelde, in the valley of Osterode,	173,81

After I had calculated these observations, Mr. RAUSCH was so good as to give me a profile of our rout, on which the points above mentioned were marked. Their heights, reduced to French toises, are as follow :

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Nous exécutâmes ce projet le 30 Octobre; et je trouvai les hauteurs suivantes par les calculs ci joints de mes observations.

	Toises de Fr.
Hauteur de l'entrée de la mine, nommée Alte Seegen, au dessus d'un certain point dans la vallée de Bremeke,	102,18
Hauteur de la même entrée de mine, au dessus d'un autre point près de Lasfelde, dans la vallée d'Osterode,	173,81

Après que j'eus calculé ces observations, M. RAUSCH eut la bonté de me donner un profil de la route que nous venions de faire, où les points ci-dessus étoient marqués. Leur hauteur, réduite en Toises de France, est comme suit.

The point of the valley of Brêmeke below Alte	} 100,85
Seegen,	
That of the vale of Osterode,	173,56

Consequently, one of these barometrical measures, taken in open air, was found to agree very nearly with the geometrical measure; and the other differs only  $1\frac{1}{3}$  toise in excess.

The only thing that remained to be enquired into was, whether the geometrical measures could really be relied on; but I soon found that I might trust to the importance they were of to the miners, as well as to the daily experience of the truth of them; although they be made in so very singular a manner, that one does stand in need of this experience, to be persuaded of their exactness.

A twisted

Le point de la vallée de Brêmeke, au dessous d'Alte Seegen,	100,85
Celui de la vallée d'Osterode,	173,56

Ainsi, l'une de ces mesures barométriques faites en plein air, s'est trouvée presque entièrement semblable à la mesure géométrique; l'autre n'en diffère que d'une toise et un tier en excès.

Il ne s'agissoit plus que d'examiner, si les mesures géométriques étoient vraiment dignes de confiance. Mais je vis bientôt, que je pouvois me reposer à cet égard sur l'importance dont il est pour les mineurs qu'elles le foyent; et sur l'expérience qui les vérifie tous les jours. Cependant elles s'exécutent d'une manière si singulière, qu'il faut réellement cette expérience, pour se persuader qu'elles sont exactes.

Un

A twifted brafs wire five toifes long, two puncheons, a femi-circle, and a compafs, are all the inftruments made ufe of by the fubterraneous Geometer. By means of his two puncheons, he extends his wire in the direction of the way which he is meafuring: and by practice he acquires a habit of always fretching it to the fame degree. His femi-circle, which is very light, being fufpended at the middle of the wire, fhews him its inclination. By this means he has a right-angled triangle, of which the hypothenufe and angle at the bafe are known. He has confequently the vertical height and horizontal diftance gone over. After this he fufpends his compafs to the wire, in order to find out its declination, and confequently the direction of his horizontal line. It is in this manner that he draws the plan and fection of thefe fubterraneous labyrinths. It is likewife by this means that he goes over hills and vales, in

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Un fil de leton tordu de 5 toifes, deux poinçons, un demi-cercle, et une bouffole, font tous les inftrumens du Geomètre fouterrain. Il étend fon fil, par le moyen de fes deux poinçons, dans la direction du trajet qu'il mefure; l'habitude le lui fait tendre toujours au même degré. Son demi-cercle, qui eft fort léger, étant fufpendu au milieu de ce fil, lui en montre l'inclinaifon; il a par ce moyen un triangle rectangle, dont l'hypothenufe et l'angle fur la bafe lui font connus: il a donc la hauteur verticale et la diftance horizontale parcouruës. Il fufpend enfuite fa bouffole au même fil, pour en connoître la déclinaifon, et par conféquent la direction de fa ligne horizontale. C'eft ainfi qu'il tire le plan et la coupe de ces labyrinthes fouterains: et c'eft ainfi encore qu'il va chercher au

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in order to determine points corresponding to his pits  
and galleries.

But is this a method that may safely be depended upon? The fact answers, and saves us the trouble of long reasonings. A miner, solely upon the faith of his Geometer, and in the absolute obscurity of the entrails of the earth, undertakes a labour that is to cost him years, in daily boring through a rock. Another miner sets out to meet him from some other mine, or from without. At the end of a determined measure, the Gnomes begin to hear each other, and at length they meet. I have observed some of these points of rencounter in the galleries; it is sometimes difficult to perceive the small winding which has been necessary for their meeting end to end.

It

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dehors, à travers les vallées et les collines, des points correspondants à ses galeries et à ses puits.

Est-ce donc là une méthode dans laquelle on puisse vraiment prendre confiance? Le fait parle ici, et épargne les raisonnemens. Le mineur, sur la foy de son Géomètre, s'aventure à entreprendre, dans l'absoluë nuit des entrailles de la terre, un travail qui lui coutera des années, en perçant journellement le rocher. On vient à sa rencontre, de quelque autre mine, ou du dehors. Au bout de la mesure déterminée, nos Gnomes viennent à s'entendre; et enfin ils se trouvent. J'ai vu plusieurs de ces points de rencontre dans les galeries; on a peine quelquefois à appercevoir le petit évafement qu'il a fallu faire, pour qu'elles se touchent bout à bout.

It remains, SIR, that I communicate to you some other barometrical observations, not verified by geometrical survey; by which I have determined the height of some points of the Hartz relatively to the plain, and chiefly the highest point.

This greatest elevation, called the Blockberg or Brocken, is situated in the estate of Count DE VERNIGUERODE. It was my first excursion on my arrival at the Hartz, and I made it in the company of Mr. REDEN. We set out from Clausthal at ten o'clock, and arrived at Oder-bruck, a hamlet situated at the foot of the Brocken, at half an hour after two in the morning. We intended setting out at day-break, in order to reach the top of the mountain by sun-rise, because that is the most favourable moment for seeing the great extent of country, which is discoverable from this eminence; the vapours, which by degrees tarnish the picture, not having yet risen. On  
this

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Il me reste à vous communiquer, Monsieur, d'autres mesures barométriques, non vérifiées, par lesquelles j'ai déterminé la hauteur de quelques points du Hartz relativement à la plaine, et principalement le plus haut point.

Cette sommité la plus élevée, nommée le Blockberg ou Brocken, est située dans les terres de M. le Comte DE VERNIGUERODE. Cet fut ma première course lorsque j'arrivai au Hartz; et M. le Baron DE REDEN la fit déjà avec moi. Nous partîmes à 10 h. du soir de Clausthal, et nous arrivâmes à 2½ h. du matin à Oder-brucke, hameau situé au pied du Brocken. Notre intention étoit de nous mettre en marche à la pointe du jour, pour arriver au lever du soleil au sommet de la montagne; parceque c'est le moment le plus favorable pour voir l'immense pays que l'on decouvre de cette hauteur: les vapeurs qui peu à peu ternissent le

this occasion, however, other vapours rendered our nocturnal course ineffectual. Clouds rested on the top of the mountain, and we hesitated a long time whether or not we should put off the party to another day. At length a ray of hope having broke forth at Oder-brucke, we determined to set out for the mountain. It was then nine o'clock in the morning, and, had we had fair weather, an hour would have been sufficient to have carried us to the top; but the clouds growing thicker and thicker, we lost our way, notwithstanding we had guides; and, had it not been for a map and compass which M. DE REDEN had provided himself with, we should not probably have arrived at the top of the Brocken that day, having been for some hours wandering round it, without drawing nearer to it. We did at length reach it at noon, being ourselves as well as the mountain covered with icicles. The wind

was

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tableau, n'étant pas encore élevées. Mais d'autres vapeurs rendirent inutile notre course de nuit: les nuages s'emparèrent du haut des montagnes; et longtemps nous hésitâmes si nous ne renverrions pas la partie à un autre jour. Mais enfin un rayon d'espérance ayant luit à Oder-brucke, nous nous déterminâmes à partir pour la montagne. Il étoit 9 h. du matin; et une heure eût suffi pour nous rendre au sommet, si nous avions eu beau tems. Mais les nuages s'étant épaissis toujours d'avantage, nous nous égarâmes malgré nos guides; et sans une boussole et une carte de ces montagnes dont M. DE REDEN avoit eu la précaution de se munir, nous ne serions peut-être pas arrivés de tout le jour au Brocken, autour duquel nous tournions, sans le trouver. Il étoit midy lorsqu'enfin nous l'atteignîmes; étant nous-mêmes couverts de verglas, comme toute la montagne. Il

faisoit



was very high, the thermometer stood at  $31\frac{1}{2}$  of FAHRENHEIT; and the clouds, chafed by the wind, covered every thing with a crust of ice that formed itself perceptibly to the eye.

I had taken with me a new hygrometer, constructed upon the principles of that I had the honour to present to the Royal Society four years ago, but corrected in many things where experience had taught me better. I was in hopes, by taking it to the Hartz, of being able to repeat the experiment of the great dryness of the superior regions of the air, which I had made formerly on the Alps; but it happened quite otherwife, and I was not sorry for the contrast. Being arrived at the top of the Brocken, I suspended my hygrometer on the outside of a small hut, which M. DE VERNIGUERODE has had the humanity to erect for the benefit of such observers as should  
come

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faisoit un vent assez fort, le thermomètre étoit à  $31\frac{1}{2}$  de FAHRENHEIT; et les nuages chariés par le vent, couvroient tout d'une croute de glace, qui se formoit à vuë d'oeil.

J'avois porté avec moi un nouvel hygromètre, construit sur les principes de celui que j'ai eu l'honneur de présenter à la Société Royale il y a quatre ans; mais où j'ai corrigé plusieurs des défauts que l'expérience m'a déjà fait découvrir dans ma première tentative. J'espérois en le portant au Hartz, de répéter l'expérience de grande sécheresse des couches supérieures de l'air, que j'avois faite ci devant sur l'une des sommités des Alpes. Mais il en arriva tout autrement: et je ne fus pas fâché du contraste. Arrivés donc enfin au sommet du Brocken, je suspendis mon hygromètre au dehors d'une petite hute, que M. DE VERNIGUERODE a eu l'humanité de faire bâtir pour servir de refuge aux curieux dans le

come there in bad weather. In an instant the ivory, of which this new instrument as well as the former is constructed, was covered with icicles; and what merits some attention as to the matter of the *humor*, the hygrometer was by that means brought very nearly down to the point of extreme humidity.

I shall not here detain you with accounts of several other observations made with this instrument in the course of my journey. I am much better pleased with it than with the first, for many reasons; however, I have not got over all the difficulties, but luckily also I have not exhausted all the resources.

I likewise observed the Barometer on this eminence; I had done it at setting out from Oder-brucke, and did it again on my return. I had likewise corresponding observations at Clausthal, and during the whole of my journey

I had

mauvais tems. En un instant l'ivoire, dont ce nouvel instrument est fait comme le premier, fut couvert d'une couche de verglas; et ce qui mérite quelque attention dans la matière de l'*humor*, l'hygromètre fut réduit par là à très peu près au point de l'humidité extrême.

Je ne m'arrêterai pas ici sur quelques autres observations que j'ai faites avec cet instrument pendant mon voyage. J'en ai été plus content que du premier à divers égards. Cependant je ne suis pas au bout des difficultés: mais heureusement non plus, je ne suis pas au bout des ressources.

Je fis aussi l'observation du baromètre sur cette hauteur. Je l'avois faite en partant d'Oder-brucke, et je la fis au retour. J'avois aussi des observations correspondantes à Clausthal: j'en eus pendant tout mon voyage de journaillères, à

I had daily ones registered at Clausthal, at Gottingen, and at Hanover. From all these observations I computed the height of Oder-brucke above all the above-mentioned places, by calculations which I have annexed.

	French toises.
The small hut, at the summit of the Brocken above Oder-brucke,	172,93
Oder-brucke above Clausthal,	91,39
Clausthal above Gottingen by 17 observations corresponding as to time, between Professor ERXLEBEN and myself,	210,21
Gottingen above Hanover by 16 similar obser- vations, between Mr. ERXLEBEN and M. DE HINUBER,	56,45
Total elevation of the Brocken above Hanover,	530,98
	It

Clausthal, à Gottingue, et à Hanovre. De toutes ces observations j'ai conclu la hauteur du Brocken sur tous les lieux ci-dessus, par les calculs ci-joints, dont voici l'extrait.

	Toises de Fr.
La maisonette au sommet du Brocken, sur Oder-brucke,	172,93
Oder-brucke sur Clausthal,	91,39
Clausthal sur Gottingue, par 17 observations correspondantes pour le tems, entre M. le Professeur ERXLEBEN et moi,	210,21
Gottingue sur Hanovre, par 16 semblables observations entre M. ERXLEBEN et M. DE HINUBER,	56,45
Hauteur totale du Brocken sur Hanovre,	530,98

It will be easy to come at the elevation of Hanover above the level of the sea, in order to compleat this measurement: corresponding observations of the Barometer will be sufficient for that purpose. In the mean time it is easy to estimate either by the Barometer itself (the mean height of which during the month of October was 30,1 English inches on a second floor) or by the small declivity of the rivers between Hanover and the sea, that the elevation of Hanover above that level is not very considerable.

Such, SIR, are the most interesting observations of this kind which I have been able to make in the Hartz. It appears to me, that they are of a nature that should encourage us to examine more and more into the physical principles on which they depend: principles, the extensive consequences of which promise new steps in our investigation of nature, not only upon our globe but also in the heavens.

*A De-*

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Il sera aisé de savoir la hauteur de Hanovre sur le niveau de la mer, pour compléter cette mesure. Des observations correspondantes du baromètre, suffiront pour cela. Mais en attendant il est aisé de juger, soit par le baromètre lui même, dont la hauteur moyenne le matin, pendant le mois d'Octobre, fut 30,1 pouces Anglois à un seconde etage; soit par le peu de pente des rivières jusques à la mer; que l'élevation de Hanovre au dessus de son niveau n'est pas bien grande.

Voilà, monsieur, les observations les plus intéressantes de ce genre, que j'aie faites dans le Hartz. Il me semble qu'elles sont propres à donner le courage d'examiner de plus près tous les principes physiques sur lesquels elles se fondent; principes, dont les conséquences très étendues, nous promettent de nouveaux pas dans l'étude de la nature, non seulement sur la terre, mais dans le ciel.

*Description*

*A Detail and Calculations of Barometrical Observations  
made at the Hartz in October 1776.**Observations in the Mines of Clausthal.* -

October 26, 1776, at twenty minutes past eleven in the morning, I observed my Barometer at the entrance of the pit of the mine called Dorothy, and found it (after the allowance made for the heat both in this and all the following observations) 26 in. 4 l.  $\frac{1}{16}$  French measure.

Syndic LEYSER's Barometer being placed near mine, and observed every quarter of an hour throughout the whole day, fell a quarter of a line, between half and three quarters of an hour after twelve, and did not vary sensibly till four o'clock. It then had a tendency to rise, for it was stationary, though the Thermometer fell; so that, on  
coming

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*Description et Calculs des Observations du Baromètre faites au Hartz, en  
October 1776.*

*Observations dans les Mines de Clausthal.*

Le 26 Octobre, 1776, à 11 h. 20 m. du matin, j'observai mon baromètre à l'entrée du puits de la mine nommée Dorothée; et je le trouvai (la correction étant faite pour la chaleur ici, et dans toutes les observations suivantes) 26 p. 4 l.  $\frac{1}{16}$  de France.

Le baromètre le M. le Syndic LEYSER étant placé auprès du mien, et observé ensuite pendant tout le jour de quart d'heure en quart d'heure, descendit d' $\frac{1}{4}$  de ligne de midi  $\frac{1}{2}$  à midi  $\frac{3}{4}$ ; et ne varia plus sensiblement jusqu'à 4 heures. Alors il tendit à remonter; car il fut stationnaire quoique le thermomètre baissait:  
tellement

coming out of the mines, my Barometer, after the correction for the Thermometer, was much at the same point as when I went in.

I had not made any observations in the mines before this first variation, so I will look upon 26 in. 3 l.  $\frac{13}{16}$  as being the height of the Barometer at the top of the pit of the Dorothy during my observations in the internal part of the mines till three o'clock. But at six o'clock I shall suppose it at 26 in. 3  $\frac{5}{16}$ .

At

tellement qu'au sortir des mines mon baromètre, après la correction pour le thermomètre, se trouva presque au même point que lorsque nous y étions entrés.

Je n'avois point encore observé dans les mines avant le tems de cette première variation: ainsi je regarderai 26 p. 3 l.  $\frac{13}{16}$  comme étant la hauteur du baromètre au haut du puits de la Dorothée pendant mes observations dans l'intérieur des mines jusqu'à 3  $\frac{1}{2}$  h. Mais à 6 h. je la supposerai à 26 p. 3  $\frac{5}{16}$ .

At $1\frac{1}{4}$ h. at two feet			
from the bottom of the	} 27 4 $\frac{1}{16}$ = 5260	37209,857	
well of the Dorothy,			
At the top of the pit,	26 3 13 = 5053	37035,493	
Difference,	— — —	174,364	

The thermometer on the outside of the building which is over the mine was at —22 of my scale for the dilatations of the air; but this external temperature reached a very little way into the mine. At the bottom of the pit the thermometer was —15. I reckon the mean temperature —15 $\frac{1}{2}$ , and consequently I am to deduct  $\frac{3\frac{1}{2}}{1000}$  from the height found by the log,

Depth of the Dorothy pit in French toises, 168,959

At

	P. L.	16 de Lig.	Log.
A $1\frac{1}{4}$ h. à 2 pieds du fond actuel du puits de la	} 27 4 $\frac{1}{16}$ = 5260	37209,857	
Dorothée,			
Au haut du puits,	26 3 13 = 5053	37035,493	

Difference, — — — 174,364

Le thermomètre au dehors du bâtiment qui couvre la mine étoit à —22 de mon échelle pour les dilatations de l'air. Mais cette température extérieure s'étendoit bien peu avant dans la mine. Au fond du puits, le thermomètre étoit —15. Je suppose la température moyenne —15 $\frac{1}{2}$ , et en conséquence je dois deduire  $\frac{3\frac{1}{2}}{1000}$  de la hauteur trouvée par les log,

Profondeur du puits de la Dorothée, en toises de France, — 168,959

In. L. . 16th of Lines. Log.

At  $3\frac{1}{2}$  h. at a foot and  
a half from the bot-  
tom of the last ladder } 27 4 13 = 5261 37210,683  
of the Caroline, - }

At the top of the pit } 26 3 13 = 5053 37035,493  
of the Dorothy, - }

Difference, — — 175,190

In the pit of this mine my thermometer  
stood at  $-11$  of the scale for the dilatations  
of the air. But the outside thermometer being } 4,455  
then at  $-23\frac{3}{4}$ , I reckon the mean temperature  
at  $-13$ , and consequently I deduct  $\frac{26}{1000}$ . - }

The bottom of the pit of the Caroline } 170,735  
below the entrance of the pit of the Doro-  
thy, — — — — }

At

P. L. . 16 de Lig. Log.

A  $3\frac{1}{2}$  h. a  $1\frac{1}{2}$  pied du bas de la dern. echelle } 27 4 13 = 5261 37210,683  
de la Caroline, — — — — }

Au haut du puits de la Dorothée, — — 26 3 13 = 5053 37035,493

Difference, — — — 175,190

Dans le puits de cette mine, mon thermomètre se tenoit à  $-11$   
de l'échelle pour les dilatations de l'air. Mais le thermomètre étant } 4,455  
alors au dehors à  $-23\frac{3}{4}$ , j'estime la température moyenne à  $-13$ .  
Et conséquemment je deduis  $\frac{26}{1000}$ , — — — }

Le fond du puits de la Caroline au dessous de l'entrée du puits de } 170,735  
la Dorothée, — — — — }



In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

At 6 o'clock at the }  
bottom of the lowest }  
searching gallery of } 27 2 14 = 5230 37185,017  
the Benedict, — }

At the top of the }  
pit of the Dorothy, - } 26 3 15 = 5055 37037,212

Difference, 147,805

At the place of observation in the mine the }  
thermometer was at  $-8\frac{3}{4}$ , higher by  $2\frac{1}{4}$  than }  
at the pit of the Caroline. But as this gal- }  
lery communicates with the same pit, and }  
that consequently the column of air contained } 3,843  
in it is part of that which weighs upon the air }  
of the gallery, I am only to estimate the tem- }  
perature of the pit. I therefore deduct  $\frac{26}{1000}$ , }  
as in the preceding observation, — }

The gallery, &c. of the Benedict, below }  
the entrance of the Dorothy, — } 143,962

*Obfer-*

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.  
A 6 h. au fond de la galerie de recherche la }  
plus basse de la Bénédicte, — } 27 2 14 = 5230 37185,017  
Au haut du puits de la Dorothée, — 26 3 15 = 5055 37037,212

Difference, 147,805

Au lieu de l'observation dans la mine, le thermomètre étoit à  $-8\frac{3}{4}$ , }  
plus haut de  $2\frac{1}{4}$  qu'au puits de la Caroline. Mais comme cette }  
galerie communique au même puits, et que par conséquent la co- }  
lonne d'air qu'il renferme, fait partie de celle qui pèse sur l'air de la }  
galerie, je ne dois avoir égard qu'à la température du puits. Je } 3,843  
deduis donc  $\frac{26}{1000}$  comme dans l'observation précédente, — }

La galerie, &c. de la Bénédicte, au dessous l'entrée de la Dorothée, 143,962

*Observations at the Ramelsberg.*

On the 28th of October, at  $9\frac{3}{4}$  h. I observed  
 the barometer under the cover of the entrance  
 of the mines, two feet and a half above the  
 aperture of the pit, and found it at — } 27 2 3

At  $2\frac{3}{4}$  h. when I left the mines, it was at — 27 2 8

Consequently it had risen  $\frac{5}{16}$ ths of a line in five hours; whence, not having made any regular observations during this interval, I will suppose the variation to have been equable, that is,  $\frac{1}{16}$ th by the hour, during the time I stayed in the mines.

At

*Observations faites au Ramelsberg.*

Le 28 Octobre, à  $9\frac{3}{4}$  h. du matin, j'observai le Baromètre sous le  
 couvert de l'entrée des mines,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  pieds au dessus de l'ouverture du } 27 2 3  
 puits, et je le trouvai à — — —

A  $2\frac{3}{4}$  h. au sortir des mines, il se trouva à — — — 27 2 8

Il avoit donc monté de  $\frac{5}{16}$  de lignes en 5 heures; et n'ayant pas eu d'observations suivies pendant cet intervalle, je supposerai la variation graduelle, et ainsi d'  $\frac{1}{16}$  par heure, durant le tems que je restai dans les mines.

In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

At  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. at the  
bottom of the pit of } 27 7 14 = 5310 37250,945  
Kaunkuhl, —

At  $12\frac{1}{2}$  h. at the  
entrance of the gallery }  
of Breitling 27 4 8; } 27 4 7 = 5255 37205,729  
consequently an hour  
before at  $11\frac{1}{2}$ , —

Difference, — — 45,218

At the bottom of the  
pit, therm. — -5 } -9 mean, deduct }  
Near the gallery, - -13 } therefore  $\frac{18}{1000}$ , } ,813

Height of the gallery of Breitling above the  
bottom of the pit of Kaunkuhl, — } 44,405

At

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log,

A  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. au fond puits de Kaunkühl, — 27 7 14 = 5310 37250,945  
A midi  $\frac{1}{2}$ , à l'entrée de la galerie de Breitling }  
27 4 8; donc 1 h. plus tôt, soit  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. — } 27 4 7 = 5255 37205,727

Difference, — — 45,218

Au fond du puits, therm. —5 } -9 moyen, donc  $\frac{18}{1000}$  à deduire, }  
Auprès de la galerie, —13 } ,813

Hauteur de la galerie de Breitling, sur le fond du puits de Kaunkühl, 44,405

438 *M. DE LUC's Barometrical Observations on*

In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

At  $12\frac{1}{4}$  h. at the  
entrance of the gallery  
of Breitling, near the  
pit, — — } 27 4 8 = 5226 37206,554

Under cover of the  
mines, at the same  
time, — — } 27 2 6 = 5222 37178,369

Difference, — — 28,185

Therm. in the pit - 13, deduct therefore  $\frac{26}{1000}$ , 732

27,453

Deduct the elevation of the barometer  
above the entrance of the mines, — } 416

The height of the entry of the mines above  
the gallery of Breitling, — — } 27,037

At

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.

A midi  $\frac{1}{4}$  à l'entrée de la galerie de Breitling, } 27 4 8 = 5226 37206,554  
près du puits, — —  
Sous le couvert des mines, à cette heure là — 27 2 6 = 5222 37178,369

Difference, — — 28,185

Thermomètre dans le puits - 13; donc  $\frac{26}{1000}$  à deduire, — ,732

27,453

A deduire ce dont le baromètre étoit plus haut que l'entrée des mines, ,416

Hauteur de l'entrée des mines, sur la galerie de Breitling, — 27,037

A  $2\frac{1}{4}$  h.

In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

At  $2\frac{3}{4}$  h. under the }  
cover of the mines, } 27 2 8 = 5224. 37180,032.

At  $2\frac{1}{2}$  h. at the top }  
of the pit of Kaun- } 26 11 6 = 5174 37138,264  
kuhl, — — —

Difference, — — — 41,768

These two observations were made on the }  
outside of the mines, the heat of the air being } 419  
— 11, deduct therefore  $\frac{22}{10000}$ , — — —

40,850

Add the elevation of the barometer under }  
the cover, above the entrance of the mines, } 918

Height of the top of the pit of Kaunkühl }  
above the entrance of the mines, — — } 41,266

At

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.

A  $2\frac{3}{4}$  h. sous le couvert des mines, — 27 2 8 = 5224. 37180,032

A  $2\frac{1}{2}$  h. au haut du puits de Kaunkühl, 26 11 6 = 5174 37138,264.

Difference; — — — 41,768

Ces deux observations furent faites au dehors des mines, la chaleur }  
de l'air étant — 11; donc  $\frac{22}{10000}$  à deduire, — — — } 918

40,850

A ajouter ce dont le baromètre sous le couvert, étoit au dessus de }  
l'entrée des mines, — — — — — } 918

Hauteur du haut du puits de Kaunkühl, sur l'entrée des mines, — — — — — 41,266

440 M. DE LUC'S *Barometrical Observations on*

In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

At  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. at the }  
bottom of the pit of } 27 7 14 = 5301 37250,945  
Kaunkuhl as above, }

At  $2\frac{1}{2}$  h. at the top }  
of the pit 26 11 6, } 26 11 3 = 5171 37135,745  
consequently at  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. }

Difference, — — 115,200  
At the bottom of the }  
pit, therm. —5 } —9, consequently } 2,074  
At the top, —13 }  $\frac{18}{1000}$  to deduct, }

Total depth of the pit of Kaunkuhl, — 113,126

*Obfer-*

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.

A  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. au fond du puits de Kaunkühl, }  
comme ci-deſſus, — — } 27 7 14 = 5310 37250,945  
A  $2\frac{1}{2}$  h. au haut du puits 26 11 6, donc }  
à  $11\frac{1}{2}$  h. — — } 26 11 3 = 5171 37135,745

Difference, — — 115,200  
Au fond du puits, therm. —5 } —9, donc  $\frac{18}{1000}$  à deduire, — 2,074  
Au haut, —13 }

Profondeur totale du puits de Kaunkühl, — — 113,126

*Obfer-*

*Observations at two Points geometrically determined on the outside of the Mountain, relatively to the Mine of Alte Seegen.*

On the 30th of October, at 10 in the morning, I observed the barometer under the cover of the mine called Alte Seegen near Zellerfelt, and found it at — —

In. L.  
21 71 2

At half an hour past seven at night, at my return from these observations, it was at

26 6 8

Consequently in nine hours and a half the barometer fell  $\frac{10}{16}$ ths of a line; and by observations made by Syndic LEYSER, this fall was gradual.

At

*Observations en deux Points d'été minés géométriquement à l'extérieur de la Montagne, relativement à la Mine d'Alte-Seegen.*

Le 30 Octobre, à 10 h. du matin, j'observai le baromètre sous le couvert de la mine nommée Alte Seegen, située près de Zellerfeld, et je le trouvai à — — — —

P. L.  
27 71 2

A 7 $\frac{1}{2}$  h. du soir, au retour des observations ci après, il se trouva à

26 6 8

Ainsi en 9 $\frac{1}{2}$  h. le baromètre baissa de  $\frac{10}{16}$  de ligne. Et par des observations faites d'heure en heure par M. le Syndic LEYSER, cet abaissement fut graduel.

442 *M. DE LUC's Barometrical Observations on*

In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

At 12 h. in the valley of Bremeke, half a toise lower than a certain determined point, } 27 3 2 = 5234 37188,357

At Alte Seegen, two hours after the first observation, — } 27 7 0 = 5104 37079,107

Difference, — — 109,230

Heat of the air - 30, consequently  $\frac{60}{1000}$  to deduct 6,554

102,676

Deduct the half toise above mentioned, — 500

French toises, — 102,176

At

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.

A midi, dans la vallée de Bremeke,  $\frac{1}{2}$  toise plus bas qu'un certain point déterminé, } 27 3 2 = 5234 37188,337

A Alte Seegen, 2 h. après la première observation, — } 26 7 0 = 5104 37079,107

Difference, — — 109,230  
Chaleur de l'air - 30; donc  $\frac{60}{1000}$  à deduire, — — 6,554

A deduire la demi toise ci-dessus, — — 102,676  
500

Toises de France, — — 102,176

A 12 h.



	In.	L.	16th of Lines.	Log.
At $1\frac{3}{4}$ h. at Lasfelde	27	8	10 = 5322	37260,749
without the Hartz, in				
the valley of Osterode,				
at a determined point,				
At Alte Seegen,	27	8	10 = 5102	37077,405
about four hours after				
the first observation,				

			183,344
Heat of the air — 26, consequently $\frac{52}{1000}$ to deduct			9,534
French toises,	—	—	173,810
			<i>Obfer-</i>

	P. L.	16 de Lig.	Log.
A $1\frac{1}{2}$ h. à Lasffelde, hors du Hartz, vallée	27	8	10 = 5322
d'Osterode, à un point déterminé,			
A Alte Seegen environ 4 h. après la première observation,	26	6	14 = 5102
			37077,405
			183,344
Chaleur de l'air — 26; donc $\frac{52}{1000}$ à deduire,			9,534
Toises de France,	—	—	173,810

*Observations to determine the height of the Brocken with respect to Gottingen and Hanover.*

The 25th of October, on setting out from Oder-brucke for the Brocken, at three quarters past eight in the morning,	—	In.	L.	25	9	8	On the first floor in the Inn.
In returning, at $3\frac{1}{4}$ h.	—			25	8	14	
Difference,				—			
				0 0 10			

Observed at the Brocken at Noon and at 1 o'clock, the mean, at about  $12\frac{1}{2}$  h. makes nearly half the space of time above mentioned; consequently the height of the barometer at Oder-brucke at that hour may be reckoned at 25 9 3.

Sindic

*Observations pour déterminer la hauteur du Brocken relativement à Gottingue et à Hanovre.*

Le 25 Octobre, en partant d'Oder-brucke pour le Brocken, à $8\frac{1}{4}$ h. du matin,	—	—	P. L.	25	9	8	Au premier étage du Cabaret.
En revenant, à $3\frac{1}{4}$ h.	—	—		25	8	14	
Difference,				—			
				0 0 10			

Observé au Brocken à midi et à 1 heure. Le milieu, midi  $\frac{1}{2}$ , fait à peu près la moitié de l'intervalle de tems ci-dessus; et par conséquent on peut évaluer la hauteur du baromètre à Oder-brucke à cette heure là, 25 9 3.

M. le Sindic

Sindic LEYSER observed the barometer at his house at Clausthal, in the morning and at noon; when instead of falling, as at Oder-brucke, it rose half a line, and remained at that point till the evening. The only cause to which I can ascribe this difference between his observation and mine, is the increase of heat in his room: but there was no observation with the thermometer to correct the effect of this cause; I shall therefore content myself with my own observation for this measure, though I employ Mr. LEYSER's for the following one.

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M. le Sindic LEYSER observa le baromètre chez lui à Clausthal le matin et à midi: et au lieu de baisser, comme à Oder-brucke, il monta de  $\frac{1}{2}$  ligne, et resta à ce point jusqu'au soir. Je ne saurois attribuer cette différence entre l'observation de M. LEYSER et la mienne, qu'à ce que la chaleur augmenta dans sa chambre: mais il n'y eut point d'observation du thermomètre pour corriger l'effet de cette cause. Je m'en tiens donc à mon observation seule pour cette mesure-ci; quoique j'emploie celle de M. LEYSER pour la suivante.

446 *M. DE LUC's Barometrical Observations on*

	In.	L.	16th of Lines.	Log.
At 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ h. the barometer at Oder-brucke must have been at,	25	9	3 = 4947	36943,419
At the Brocken,				
at 12 h. 23 8 5	} mean	29	8	3 = 4739
at 1 h. 5 m. 24 8 1				
Difference,	—	—	—	186,552
On setting out from Oder-brucke the heat of the air was at —	} -34 $\frac{1}{2}$	} -33	} -36 $\frac{1}{2}$ , conseq. $\frac{73}{1000}$ to deduct,	} 13,618
At our return, —				
At the Brocken, —	—	-40		
Height of the Brocken above Oder-brucke,				172,934
				By

	P. L.	16 de Lig.	Log.
A midi $\frac{1}{2}$ le baromètre devoit être à Oder-brucke,	25	9	3 = 4947
Au Brocken, { à midi 24 8 5 } moyen,	24	8	3 = 4739
à 1 h. 5 m. 24 8 1			
Difference,	—	—	186,552
En partant d'Oder-brucke, la chaleur de l'air étoit, —	} -34 $\frac{1}{2}$	} -33	} -36 $\frac{1}{2}$ , donc $\frac{73}{1000}$ à deduire,
Au retour, —			
Au Brocken, —	—	-40	
Hauteur du Brocken sur Oder-brucke,	—	—	172,934

By the above mentioned observations of Mr. DE LEY-  
SER's, and by the comparison between his barometer  
and mine, I have reason to conjecture, that at the time of  
the mean observation of the barometer at Oder-brucke,

	In.	L.	16th of Line.	Log.
it stood at Clausthal at,	26	4	3 = 5059	37040,647
Mean height ob- } served at Oder-brucke, }	25	9	3 = 4947	36943,419

Difference, — — 97,228

The mean heat of the air must have been a  
little greater than at Oder-brucke; I compute } 5,834  
it at - 30, consequently  $\frac{60}{1000}$  to deduct, - }

Height of Oder-brucke over the first floor }  
of Mr. DE LEYSER's house at Clausthal, or } 91,394  
what comes to the same nearly, above the first- }  
floor of the Crown Inn, where I lodged, - }

The

Par les observations ci-dessus de M. LEYSER, et par la comparaison faite de son  
baromètre avec le mien, j'ai lieu de conjecturer, que lors de l'observation moyenne  
du baromètre à Oder-brucke, il étoit à Clausthal, P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.  
Hauteur moyenne observée à Oder-brucke, 26 4 3 = 5059 37040,647  
25 9 3 = 4947 36943,419

Difference, — — 97,228

La chaleur moyenne de l'air devoit être un peu plus grande qu'à } 5,834  
Oder-brucke. Je la suppose à - 30; donc  $\frac{60}{1000}$  à deduire, - }

Hauteur d'Oder-brucke sur le premier étage de la maison de M. }  
LEYSER à Clausthal, ou, ce qui revient à peu près au même, sur le } 91,394  
premier étage de l'auberge de la Couronne où j'étois logé, - }

Le

448 M. DE LUC's *Barometrical Observations on*

The mean term betwixt 17 observations of the barometer, made at Gottingen from the 24th of October to the 1st of November, by Profefſor ERXLEBEN, corrected for the heat,

In. L. 16th of Lines. Log.

27 9 3 = 5331 37268,09

The mean term of 17 observations made upon the first-floor of the Crown Inn at Clausthal, corresponding for the time to those of Gottingen,

26 4 8 = 5064 37044,94

Difference, — — 223,15

Mean heat of the air during the observations at Gottingen,

$-26\frac{1}{2}$  }  $-29$  conséq. } 12,94  
 $-\frac{58}{1000}$  to deduct.

At Clausthal,

$-31\frac{1}{2}$

Height of Clausthal above Gottingen,

210,22

Le terme moyen entre 17 observations du baromètre faites à Gottingue, du 24 au 21 Octobre, par M. le Professeur ERXLEBEN, corrigées aussi pour la

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.

chaleur, — — — 27 9 3 = 5331 37268,09

Le terme moyen de 17 observations faites au premier étage de la Couronne à Clausthal, correspondantes pour le tems avec celles de Gottingue,

26 4 8 = 5064 37044,94

Difference, — — — 223,15

Chaleur moyenne de l'air pendant les observations à Gottingue,

$-26\frac{1}{2}$  }  $-29$ ; donc } 12,94  
 $-\frac{58}{1000}$  à déduire,

De même à Clausthal,

$-31\frac{1}{2}$

Hauteur de Clausthal sur Gottingue,

210,21

Le

Mean term of 16 observations made at Hanover, from the 24th of October to the 1st of November, by Mr. DE HINUBER, with a barometer of Mr. DOLLOND's made

In. L. 16th of a Line. Log.  
to agree with mine, 28 2 3 = 5411 37332,775

That of the corre-  
sponding observations  
for the time, made by  
Mr. ERXLEBEN, } 27 9 9 = 5337 37272,972

Difference, — — 59,803  
Mean heat at Hano-  
ver, at the time of the } -29½ } -28, confeq. }  
observations, } 1000 to deduct } 3,349  
The same at Gottingen, -26½ }

Height of Gottingen above Hanover, — 56,454

Le terme moyen de 16 observations faites à Hanovre, du 24 Octobre au 1 Novembre, par M. DE HINUBER, avec un Baromètre de M. DOLLOND, mis

P. L. 16 de Lig. Log.  
d'accord avec le mien, — — 28 2 3 = 5411 37332,775  
Celui des observations correspondantes pour le }  
tems, faites par M. ERXLEBEN, — } 27 9 9 = 5337 37272,972

Difference, — — 59,803  
Chaleur moyenne à Hanovre au tems des ob-  
servations, — — — -29½ } -28 ; donc }  
De même à Gottingue, — — -26½ } 1000 à déduire, } 3,349

Hauteur de Gottingue sur Hanovre, — — 56,454



XXIII. *The general Mathematical Laws which regulate and extend Proportion universally; or, a Method of comparing Magnitudes of any Kind together, in all the possible Degrees of Increase and Decrease. By James Glenie, A. M. and Lieutenant in the Royal Regiment of Artillery.*

Read March 6, 1777. **T**HE doctrine of proportion laid down by EUCLID, and the application of it given by him in his Elements, form the basis of almost all the geometrical reasoning made use of by mathematicians both ancient and modern. But the reasonings of geometers with regard to proportional magnitudes have seldom been carried beyond the triplicate *ratio*, which is the proportion that similar solids have to one another when referred to their homologous linear dimensions. This boundary, however, comprehends but a very limited portion of universal comparifon, and almost vanishes into nothing when referred to that endless variety of relations, which must necessarily take place between geometrical magnitudes, in the infinite possible degrees of increase and decrease. The first of these takes in but  
a very



a very contracted field of geometrical comparison; whereas the last extends it indefinitely. Within the narrow compass of the first, the ancient geometers performed wonders, and their labours have been pushed still farther by the ingenuity and indefatigable industry of the moderns. But no author, that I have been able to meet with, gives the least hint or information with regard to any general method of expressing geometrically, when any two magnitudes of the same kind are given, what degree of augmentation or diminution any one of these magnitudes must undergo, in order to have to the other any multiply or sub-multiply *ratio* of these magnitudes in their given state; or any such *ratio* of them as is denoted by fractions or surds; or (to speak still more generally) a *ratio* which has, to the *ratio* of the first-mentioned of these magnitudes to the other, the *ratio* of any two magnitudes whatever of the same but of any kind. Neither have I been able to find that any author has shewn geometrically in a general way, when any number of *ratios* are to be compounded or decomposed with a given *ratio*, how much either of the magnitudes in the given *ratio* is to be augmented or diminished, in order to have to the other a *ratio*, which is equal to the given *ratio*, compounded or decomposed with the other *ratios*. To investigate all these geome-

pendicularly to  $vo$ , or otherwise if in the same angle; and let the rectangles or parallelograms  $MR$ ,  $NP$ , be completed. Let  $LM$  be a fourth proportional to  $OP$ ,  $MN$  and  $NR-OP$ ; and let the rectangle or parallelogram  $LQ$  be completed.

Then (14. E. 6.)  $LT$  is equal to  $TR$ , and consequently  $LQ$  to  $MR$ . But (23. E. 6.)  $MR$  has to  $NP$  the *ratio* compounded of the *ratios* of  $MN$  to  $NO$  and  $NR$  to  $OP$ . Therefore (1. E. 6.)  $LN$  has to  $NO$  the *ratio* compounded of the *ratios* of  $MN$  to  $NO$  and  $NR$  to  $OP$ . But  $LN$  is equal to  $MN + MN \cdot \frac{NR-OP}{OP}$ , or  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D}$ , by construction. Whence it appears, that a magnitude of the same kind with  $A$  and  $B$ , which has to  $B$  the *ratio* compounded of the *ratios* of  $A$  to  $B$  and  $c$  to  $d$ , is expressed by  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D}$ .

In like manner let  $E$ ,  $F$ , be represented by  $RN$ ,  $OP$ , respectively, and let  $LK$  be a fourth proportional to  $OP$ ,  $LN$ , and  $QR$ . Then (14. E. 6.)  $KX$  is equal to  $XR$  or  $TR$  and  $XS$  together. But since  $LN$  hath already been shewn to be equal to  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D}$ ,  $LK$  is a fourth proportional to  $F$ ,  $E-F$ , and  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D}$ ; that is equal to  $A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F}$ . by construction. Wherefore  $KN$  being equal to  $LK + LN$  is equal to  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F}$ . And since  $KQ$  is equal to  $LR$ ,  $KN$  has to  $NO$  a *ratio* compounded of

the *ratios* of LN to NO and NR to OP; that is, of the *ratios* A to B, C to D, and E to F. Therefore a magnitude of the same kind with A and B, which has to B the *ratio* compounded of these *ratios* is expressed by  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F}$ .

Again, if NR, OP, be supposed to represent G, H, respectively, and KV a fourth proportional to OP, KN, and QR; VQ will be equal to KR (14. E. 6.) and consequently VN will have to NO a *ratio* compounded of the *ratios* of KN to NO and NR to OP; that is, of the *ratios* A to B, C to D, E to F, G to H. But VK is by construction equal to  $A \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H}$ . And this added to KN above found gives  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H}$ , for the magnitude of the same kind with A and B, which has to B the *ratio* compounded of the *ratios* A to B, C to D, E to F, G to H; whence the law of continuation is manifest.

The same conclusions may be derived from (E. 5.); so that no principle can be simpler or more geometrical than that here made use of.

Thus then these magnitudes will stand.

1.  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D}$ , when two *ratios* are compounded.

2.  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F}$ , when three are compounded.

3.  $A + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{G-F}{F} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H} + A \cdot \frac{C-D}{D} \cdot \frac{E-F}{F} \cdot \frac{G-H}{H}$ , when four *ratios* are compounded, &c. &c.

By continuing this operation much farther, I found upon examination that the number of terms in which A is connected with the differences C-D, E-F, G-H, &c. taken one by one, two by two, three by three, &c. if  $p$  denote the number of *ratios* compounded, is expressed respectively by  $\frac{p-1}{1}$ ,  $\frac{p-1}{1} \cdot \frac{p-2}{2}$ ,  $\frac{p-1}{1} \cdot \frac{p-2}{2} \cdot \frac{p-3}{3}$ , &c. Thus if the *ratio* of A to B be supposed equal to the *ratios* of C to D, E to F, G to H, &c. respectively, these expressions will give the following ones.

$$1. A + \frac{2-1}{1} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B}.$$

$$2. A + \frac{3-1}{1} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B} + \frac{3-1}{1} \cdot \frac{3-2}{2} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B}^2.$$

$$3. A + \frac{4-1}{1} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B} + \frac{4-1}{1} \cdot \frac{4-2}{2} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B}^2 + \frac{4-1}{1} \cdot \frac{4-2}{2} \cdot \frac{4-3}{3} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B}^3;$$

for magnitudes of the same kind with A and B, which have to B respectively the duplicate, triplicate, and quadruplicate *ratio* of A to B; where  $p$  is successively equal to 2, 3, and 4. And universally, by the same geometrical reasoning, it is found, that  $A + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B} + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot \frac{p-2}{2} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B}^2 + \&c. A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B}^{p-1}$  has to B such

B such a multiply ratio of A to B as is expressed by the number  $p$ .

In the reasoning above I fixed on B as the magnitude to which the rest were to be referred; but I might as well have fixed on A or any of the other magnitudes. Thus, for instance,  $B + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot B \cdot \frac{B-A}{A} + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot \frac{p-2}{2} \cdot B \cdot \frac{(B-A)^2}{A^2} + \&c.$   
 $B \cdot \frac{(B-A)^{p-1}}{A^{p-1}}$  has to A such a multiply ratio of B to A as is expressed by the number  $p$ ; or A has to  $B + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot B \cdot \frac{B-A}{A} + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot \frac{p-2}{2} \cdot B \cdot \frac{(B-A)^2}{A^2} + \&c.$   $B \cdot \frac{(B-A)^{p-1}}{A^{p-1}}$  the ratio of  $A + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot A \cdot \frac{A-B}{B} + \frac{p-1}{1} \cdot \frac{p-2}{2} \cdot A \cdot \frac{(A-B)^2}{B^2} + \&c.$   $A \cdot \frac{(A-B)^{p-1}}{B^{p-1}}$  to B; that is, such a multiply ratio of A to B as is expressed by the number  $p$ . Each of these, indeed, I demonstrated separately from the same sort of geometrical reasoning; but for the sake of brevity I omit setting down these separate demonstrations, as they are both contained in general reasoning above, which furnishes likewise a great variety of other expressions, according as certain numbers of the ratios C to D, E to F, G to H, &c. are supposed to be respectively equal to, greater or less than, the ratio of A to B.



XXIV. *The Case of Ann Davenport. By Mr. Fielding Best Fynney, Surgeon at Leek, in Staffordshire; communicated to Thomas Percival, M. D. F. R. S. and by him to Sir John Pringle, Bart. P. R. S.*

TO SIR JOHN PRINGLE, BART. P. R. S.

S I R,

Manchester,  
April 8, 1777.

Read April 10,  
1777.

I TOOK the liberty, a few days ago, of transmitting to you, by a private hand, a singular case, sent me by Mr. F. B. FYNNEY, an ingenious surgeon, who is settled at Leek in Staffordshire. He desires that it may be laid before the Royal Society; and I shall think myself much obliged by your compliance with his request.

## TO DR. PERCIVAL.

SIR,

Leek,  
March 19, 1777.

UPON May 16, 1775, being desired to visit ANN DAVENPORT, a native of this town, I beheld a truly miserable object, with the most cadaverous countenance I had ever seen, emaciated to the last degree by a hectic fever, and profuse colliquative sweats. She had a continual thirst, her appetite was totally gone, and she was always in the extremes of being too loose or too bound.

Her mother informed me, that she was then in her twenty-first year; and that she had been a strong and sprightly child from her birth, until she was about five years of age, from which time she had been a stranger to health, and every now and then had been seized with excruciating fits of the colic, especially whenever she ate or drank any thing the least acid.

The young woman told me, that about a year ago she had first perceived a swelling on the right side of her belly, just above the groin; which, if at any time she attempted to stretch out her thigh, gave her inexpressible pain, as if something stabbed her in that part:

that therefore she was always obliged to keep up her knees, more or less, towards her breast, by which means she had, in some degree, lost the power of extending her limbs.

I ordered her to take half a drachm of powdered bark in a little red port wine every four hours; and, as matter had already formed within the tumor, I desired that a maturing poultice might be applied every night and morning; for I imagined that nature, without such assistance, could never bring the abscess to a head in her weak condition.

July 10th, the matter pointing at the upper end of the tumour very near the *os ilium*, I made a large opening, from which was discharged an amazing quantity of pus; but, as the tension was still great, I applied a linseed poultice over the common dressings: nevertheless, in a few days a second abscess began to form towards the *vertebræ* of the loins, between the false ribs and the *os ilium*, which was rapid in its progress, for it was brought to maturation, and opened on the 26th.

On the 31st I was alarmed with a gangrenous appearance of the whole integuments of the *abdomen*: for this she took one drachm of powdered bark in red-port every three hours; but, as vesications and every sym-



ptom of a *sphacelus* continued to increafe, I likewise used the bark externally, in the two following forms, every morning and evening:

℞ *Tinct. Cort. Peruv. Simp.* ℥ ȳ

—— *Myrrb. Comp.* ℥ j

*Sp. Sal. Ammon.*

*Mell. Ægypt. aa.* ℥ ff. *m. fiat embrocat.*

℞ *Fac. Cerevis. acid.* ℔ j

*Farin. Avenac. q. s. coque ad consistentiam Cata-*  
*plasmatis, et adde Pulv. Cort. Peruv. ℥ j*

*Ol. Olivar. rec.* ℥ iv *m. fiat Cataplasma.*

This treatment soon put the mortification to a stand, and the parts sloughing off largely left three holes, at nearly equal distances one from another, betwixt the first opening and the left *os ilium*, besides several ones in different parts of the belly; but as the discharge was immoderate, I looked upon the patient to be in the utmost danger. However, the same course was persevered in, and at the latter end of August another abscess appeared lower down, towards the right groin; I ordered it to be poulticed, and left it to open of itself, which it did on the 21st of September. I was immediately called to her; and,

and, upon carefully examining the part, I found a hard substance deeply seated, which I directly extracted<sup>(a)</sup>.

It was making its way towards the integuments from the extremity of the *appendix vermiformis* of the *cæcum*, which probably, and fortunately, by former inflammations had adhered to the *peritonæum*. The large end came first, and the small end was within the *appendix vermiformis* of the *cæcum* at the time I took it out; for, immediately upon the extraction, some excrements followed, and among them some dark brown particles which I discovered to be filings of iron, which the patient had formerly taken in a large quantity, as she had never been regular like other women. On a careful examination I found some of these filings quite reduced to rust,

(a) See plate IX. the figures 1. and 2. are different views of the external surface of this irregular substance, and of so much of its *nucleus* as projects out of the round part, exactly as both appeared on being taken out of the body. The whole was of a dusky brown colour, and had a great resemblance to a small shrivelled pear. Fig. 3. is a section of the round part, which seemed to be formed of fine fibrous substances, closely cemented together by an earthy matter, and of the peg of crab-tree wood, its *nucleus*. This figure likewise shews how far the peg went in, and also an incrustation of stony matter upon it.

The *nucleus*, I believe, is the smaller end of that part of a silk-engine called a star, at which machine the patient had been employed before she was five years of age, therefore it must have been lodged at least sixteen years within the *appendix vermiformis* of the *cæcum*, as she remembers nothing of swallowing it, and as during that course of years she had frequently been afflicted with the severe colics before-mentioned.

but

but still retaining their form as they came from under the file.

Some *feces* came through this last wound daily, frequently most copiously; and sometimes (though the external orifice was large) by being confined with the dressings, they insinuated themselves between the integuments of the *abdomen*, and came through the other openings. About the middle of February 1776, the discharge of the excrements by these openings was sensibly diminished; and the wounds were all healed, except one, by the latter end of the year, through which a small quantity of excrements still continue to pass now and then.

Her health is, within this short time, surprizingly improved; she is now very fleshy and strong, has had the *catamenia*, and I have the greatest reason to expect that she will be perfectly cured. Strict regard was all along paid to the non-naturals.

As the case above is a very uncommon one, I prevailed on the reverend Mr. ROGERS, minister of this place, to visit the patient along with me; and he was so fully satisfied of the truth of the account, as to give me the following certificate.

I hereby

I hereby certify, that I saw, this 27th day of December, 1775, Mr. FIELDING BEST FYNNEY dress his patient ANN DAVENPORT, and was an eye-witness to pure *faeces* coming out of the wound from which he had extracted an irregular substance on the 21st of September last.

As witness my hand,

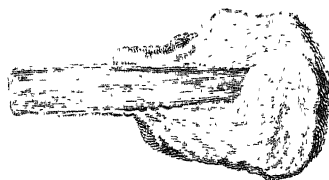
J. R. O G E R S,  
Minister of Leek.



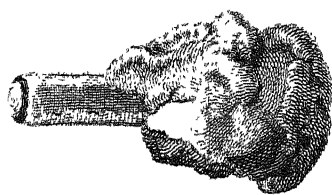




*Fig. 1.*



*Fig. 3.*



*Fig. 2.*





XXV. *An Account of the Kingdom of Thibet. In a Letter from John Stewart, Esquire, F. R. S. to Sir John Pringle, Bart. P. R. S.*

S I R,

London,  
March 20, 1777-

Read April 17, 1777. **D**URING my late residence in India, a transaction took place in Bengal, which, in its consequence, led to a new and more intimate knowledge of a vast country, hitherto unexplored by Europeans, and hardly known to them but by name. As every discovery of this sort tends to the advancement of natural knowledge, I have thought a short notice on the subject might prove no disagreeable communication to the Society; and therefore take the liberty, with your approbation, to submit it, in this manner, to them.

The kingdom of Thibet, although known by name ever since the days of MARCO PAOLO and other travellers of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, had never been properly explored by any European till the period of

which I am now to speak. It is true, some straggling missionaries of the begging orders had, at different times, penetrated into different parts of the country; but their observations, directed by ignorance and superstition, placed in a narrow sphere, could give no ideas but what were false and imperfect. Since them, the Jesuits have given the world, in DUHALDE'S History of China, a short account of this country, collected, with their usual pains and judgement, from Tartar relations, which, as far as it goes, seems to be pretty just.

This country commonly passes in Bengal under the name of Boutan. It lies to the northward of Hindostan, and is all along separated from it by a range of high and steep mountains, properly a continuation of the great Caucasus, which stretches from the ancient Media and the shores of the Caspian sea, round the north-east frontiers of Persia, to Candahar and Cassamire, and thence, continuing its course more easterly, forms the great northern barrier to the various provinces of the Mogol empire, and ends, as we have reason to believe, in Assam or China. This stupendous Tartar bulwark had ever been held impassable by the Mogols, and all other Mussulman conquerors of India: and although in the vallies lying between the lower mountains, which run out perpendicular to the main ridge, there reside various Indian people, whom

whom they had occasionally made tributary to their power, they never had attempted a solid or permanent dominion over them. It was on occasion of a disputed succession between the heirs of one of the Rajah's or petty sovereigns of those people, that the Boutaners were called down from their mountains to the assistance of one of the parties; and our government engaged on the opposite side. The party assisted by us did not fail in the end to prevail; and in the course of this little war two people became acquainted who, although near neighbours, were equally strangers to each other. At the attack of a town called Cooch Behar, our troops and the Boutaners first met; and nothing could exceed their mutual surprize in the rencounter. The Boutaners, who had never met in the plains any other than the timid Hindoos flying naked before them, saw, for the first time, a body of men, uniformly cloathed and accoutred, moving in regular order, and led on by men of complexion, dress, and features, such as they had never beheld before: and then the management of the artillery, and incessant fire of the musquetry, was beyond any idea which they could have conceived of it. On the other hand, our people found themselves on a sudden engaged with a race of men unlike all their former opponents in India, uncouth in their appearance, and fierce in their assault, wrapped up in furs,

and armed with bows and arrows and other weapons peculiar to them.

The place was carried by our troops, and a great many things taken in the spoil, such as arms, cloathing, and utensils of various sorts. Images in clay, in gold, in silver, and in enamel, were sent down to Calcutta; all which appeared perfectly Tartar, as we have them represented in the relations and drawings of travellers; and there were besides several pieces of Chinese paintings and manufactures. Whilst those things continued to be the subject of much conversation and curiosity to us in Bengal, the fame of our exploits in the war had reached the court of Thibet, and awakened the attention of the Tayfhoo Lama, who (the Delai Lama being a minor) was then at the head of the state. The Dah Terriah, or Deb Rajah as he is called in Bengal (who rules immediately over the Boutaners, and had engaged them in the war) being a feudatory of Thibet, the Lama thought it proper to interpose his good offices, and in consequence sent a person of rank to Bengal, with a letter and presents to the governor, to solicit a peace for the Dah, as his vassal and dependant.

Mr. HASTINGS, the governor, did not hesitate a moment to grant a peace at the mediation of the Lama, on the most moderate and equitable terms; and, eager to  
seize

seize every opportunity which could promote the interest and glory of this nation, and tend to the advancement of natural knowledge, proposed in council to send a person in a public character to the court of the Tayshoo Lama, to negotiate a treaty of commerce between the two nations, and to explore a country and people hitherto so little known to Europeans. Mr. BOGLE, an approved servant of the company, whose abilities and temper rendered him every way qualified for so hazardous and uncommon a mission, was pitched on for it. It would be foreign to my purpose to enter into a detail of his progress and success in this business: it will be sufficient to say, that he penetrated, across many difficulties, to the center of Thibet; resided several months at the court of the Tayshoo Lama; and returned to Calcutta, after an absence of fifteen months on the whole, having executed his commission to the entire satisfaction of the administration. I have reason to believe that Mr. BOGLE will one day give to the world a relation of his journey thither, accompanied with observations on the natural and political state of the country. I only, in the mean time, beg leave to mention a few particulars, such as my recollection of his letters and papers enable me to give.

Mr. BOGLE divides the territories of the Delai Lama into two different parts. That which lies immediately contiguous

contiguous to Bengal, and which is called by the inhabitants Docpo, he distinguishes by the name of Boutan; and the other, which extends to the northward as far as the frontiers of Tartary, called by the natives Pû, he styles Thibet. Boutan is ruled by the Dah Terriah or Deb Rajah, as I have already remarked. It is a country of steep and inaccessible mountains, whose summits are crowned with eternal snow; they are intersected with deep vallies, through which pour numberless torrents that increase in their course, and at last, gaining the plains, lose themselves in the great rivers of Bengal. These mountains are covered down their sides with forests of stately trees of various sorts; some (such as pines, &c.) which are known in Europe; others, such as are peculiar to the country and climate. The vallies and sides of the hills which admit of cultivation are not unfruitful, but produce crops of wheat, barley, and rice. The inhabitants are a stout and warlike people, of a copper complexion, in size rather above the middle European stature, hasty and quarrelsome in their temper, and addicted to the use of spirituous liquors; but honest in their dealings, robbery by violence being almost unknown among them. The chief city is Tassay Seddein situated on the Patchoo. Thibet begins properly from the top of the great ridge of the Caucasus, and extends from thence  
in

in breadth to the confines of Great Tartary, and perhaps to some of the dominions of the Russian empire. Mr. BOGLE says, that having once attained the summit of the Boutan mountains, you do not descend in an equal proportion on the side of Thibet; but, continuing still on a very elevated base, you traverse vallies which are wider and not so deep as the former, and mountains that are neither so steep, nor apparently so high. On the other hand, he represents it as the most bare and desolate country he ever saw. The woods, which every where cover the mountains in Boutan, are here totally unknown; and, except a few straggling trees near the villages, nothing of the sort to be seen. The climate is extremely severe and rude. At Chamnanning, where he wintered, although it be in latitude  $31^{\circ} 39'$ , only  $8^{\circ}$  to the northward of Calcutta, he often found the thermometer in his room at  $29^{\circ}$  under the freezing point by FAHRENHEIT's scale; and in the middle of April the standing waters were all frozen, and heavy showers of snow perpetually fell. This, no doubt, must be owing to the great elevation of the country, and to the vast frozen space over which the north wind blows uninterruptedly from the pole, through the vast deserts of Siberia and Tartary, till it is stopped by this formidable wall.

The Thibetians are of a smaller size than their southern neighbours, and of a less robust make. Their complexions are also fairer, and many of them have even a ruddiness in their countenances unknown in the other climates of the east. Those whom I saw at Calcutta appeared to have quite the Tartar face. They are of a mild and chearful temper; and Mr. BOGLE says, that the higher ranks are polite and entertaining in conversation, in which they never mix either strained compliments or flattery. The common people, both in Boutan and Thibet, are cloathed in coarse woollen stuffs of their own manufacture, lined with such skins as they can procure; but the better orders of men are dressed in European cloth, or China silk, lined with the finest Siberian furs. The ambassador from the Deb Rajah, in his summer-dress at Calcutta, appeared exactly like the figures we see in the Chinese paintings, with the conical hat, the tunick of brocaded silk, and light boots. The Thebetian who brought the first letter from the Lama was wrapped up from head to foot in furs. The use of linen is totally unknown among them. The chief food of the inhabitants is the milk of their cattle, prepared into cheese, butter, or mixed with the flour of a coarse barley or of peas, the only grain which their soil produces; and even these articles are in a scanty proportion: but they are furnished with



with rice and wheat from Bengal and other countries in their neighbourhood. They also are supplied with fish from the rivers in their own and the neighbouring provinces, salted and sent into the interior parts. They have no want of animal food from the cattle, sheep, and hogs, which are raised on their hills; and are not destitute of game, though I believe it is not abundant. They have a singular method of preparing their mutton, by exposing the carcase entire, after the bowels are taken out, to the Sun and bleak northern winds which blow in the months of August and September, without frost, and so dry up the juices and parch the skin, that the meat will keep uncorrupted for the year round. This they generally eat raw, without any other preparation. Mr. BOGLE was often regaled with this dish, which, however unpalatable at first, he says, he afterwards preferred to their dressed mutton just killed, which was generally lean, tough, and rank. It was also very common for the head men, in the villages through which he passed, to make him presents of sheep so prepared, set before him on their legs as if they had been alive, which at first had a very odd appearance.

The religion and political constitution of this country, which are intimately blended together, would make a considerable chapter in its history. It suffices for me to

say, that at present, and ever since the expulsion of the Eluth Tartars, the kingdom of Thibet is regarded as depending on the empire of China, which they call Cathay; and there actually reside two mandarines, with a garrison of a thousand Chinese, at Lahassa the capital, to support the government; but their power does not extend far: and in fact the Lama, whose empire is founded on the surest grounds, personal affection and religious reverence, governs every thing internally with unbounded authority. Every body knows that the Delai Lama is the great object of adoration for the various tribes of heathen Tartars, who roam through the vast tract of continent which stretches from the banks of the Volga to Corea on the sea of Japan, the most extensive religious dominion, perhaps, on the face of the globe. He is not only the sovereign Pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the more remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine; even the emperor of China, who is a Mantchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgements to him in his religious capacity, and actually entertains at a great  
expence,

expenſe, in the palace of Pekin, an inferior Lama, deputed as his Nuncio from Thibet. It is even reported, that many of the Tartar chiefs receive certain preſents, conſiſting of ſmall portions of that, from him, which is ever regarded in all other perſons as the moſt humiliating proof of human nature, and of being ſubject to its laws, and treaſure it up with great reverence in gold boxes, to be mixed occaſionally in their ragouts. It is, however, but juſtice to declare, that Mr. BOGLE ſtrenuouſly inſiſts, that the Lama never makes ſuch preſents; but that he often diſtributes little balls of conſecrated flour, like the *pain benit* of the Roman catholics, which the ſuperſtition and blind credulity of his Tartar votaries may afterwards convert into what they pleaſe. The orthodox opinion is, that when the grand Lama ſeems to die, either of old age or of infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits an actual crazy habitation to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens known only to the Lamas or Prieſts, in which order he always appears. The preſent Delai Lama is an infant, and was diſcovered only a few years ago by the Tayſhoo Lama, who in authority and ſanctity of character is next to him, and conſequently, during the other's minority, acts as chief. The Lamas, who form the moſt numerous as well as the moſt

powerful body in the state, have the priesthood entirely in their hands; and, besides, fill up many monastic orders which are held in great veneration among them. Celibacy, I believe, is not positively enjoined to the Lamas; but it is held indispensable for both men and women, who embrace a religious life: and indeed their celibacy, their living in communities, their cloysters, their service in the choirs, their strings of beads, their fasts, and their penances, give them so much the air of Christian monks, that it is not surprizing an illiterate capuchin should be ready to hail them brothers, and think he can trace the features of St. Francis in every thing about them. It is an old notion, that the religion of Thibet is a corrupted Christianity; and even Father DISEDERII, a Jesuit (but not of the Chinese mission) who visited the country about the beginning of this century, thinks he can resolve all their mysteries into ours; and asserts, with a true mystical penetration, that they have certainly a good notion of the Trinity, since, in their address to the Deity, they say as often Konciok-oik in the plural as Konciok in the singular, and with their rosaries pronounce these words, Om, ha, hum. The truth is, that the religion of Thibet, from whence-ever it sprung, is pure and simple in its source, conveying very exalted notions of the Deity, with no contemptible system of morality; but in its progress

progress it has been greatly altered and corrupted by the inventions of worldly men, a fate we can hardly regret in a system of error, since we know that that of truth has been subject to the same. Polygamy, at least in the sense we commonly receive the word, is not in practice among them; but it exists in a manner still more repugnant to European ideas; I mean in the plurality of husbands, which is firmly established and highly respected there. In a country where the means of subsisting a family are not easily found, it seems not impolitic to allow a set of brothers to agree in raising one, which is to be maintained by their joint efforts. In short, it is usual in Thibet for the brothers in the family to have a wife in common, and they generally live in great harmony and comfort with her; not but sometimes little dissensions will arise (as may happen in families constituted upon different principles) an instance of which Mr. BOGLE mentions in the case of a modest and virtuous lady, the wife of half a dozen of the Tayshoo Lama's nephews, who complained to the uncle, that the two youngest of her husbands did not furnish that share of love and benevolence to the common stock which duty and religion required of them. In short, however strange this custom may appear to us, it is an undoubted fact that it prevails in Thibet in the manner I have described.

The manner of bestowing their dead is also singular: they neither put them in the ground like the Europeans, nor burn them like the Hindoos; but expose them on the bleak pinnacle of some neighbouring mountain, to be devoured by wild beasts and birds of prey, or waisted away by time and the vicissitudes of weather in which they lie. The mangled carcases and bleached bones lye scattered about; and, amidst this scene of horror, some miserable old wretch, man or woman, lost to all feelings but those of superstition, generally sets up an abode, to perform the dismal office of receiving the bodies, assigning each a place, and gathering up the remains when too widely dispersed.

The religion of Thibet, although it be in many of its principal *dogmata* totally repugnant to that of the Bramins or of India, yet in others it has a great affinity to it. They have, for instance, a great veneration for the cow; but they transfer it wholly from the common species to that which bears the tails, of which I shall speak hereafter. They also highly respect the waters of the Ganges, the source of which they believe to be in Heaven; and one of the first effects which the treaty with the Lama produced, was an application to the governor-general, for leave to build a place of worship on its banks. This it may be imagined was not refused; and,

when I left Bengal, a spot of ground was actually assigned for that purpose, about two or three miles from Calcutta. On the other hand, the Sunniasses, or Indian pilgrims, often visit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. The residence of the Delai Lama is at Pateli, a vast palace on a mountain near the banks of the Barampooter, about seven miles from Lahassa. The Tayshoo Lama has several palaces or castles, in one of which Mr. BOGLE lived with him five months. He represents the Lama as one of the most amiable as well as intelligent men he ever knew; maintaining his rank with the utmost mildness of authority, and living in the greatest purity of manners, without starchness or affectation. Every thing within the gates breathed peace, order, and dignified elegance. The castle is of stone or brick, with many courts, lofty halls, terraces, and porticos; and the apartments are in general roomy, and highly finished in the Chinese style, with gilding, painting, and varnish. There are two conveniencies to which they are utter strangers, stair-cases and windows. There is no access to the upper rooms but by a sort of ladders of wood or iron; and for windows they have only holes in the ceilings, with pent-house covers, contrived so as to shut up on the weather-side. Firing is so scarce, that little is used but for culinary purposes;

purposes; and they trust altogether for warmth in their houses to their furs and other cloathing. The Lama, who is compleatly conversant in what regards Tartary, China, and all the kingdoms in the East, was exceedingly inquisitive about Europe, its politics, laws, arts and sciences, government, commerce, and military strength; on all which heads Mr. BOGLE endeavoured to satisfy him, and actually compiled for his service a brief state of Europe in the Hindostan language, which he ordered to be translated into that of Thibet. The Lama being born at Latak, a frontier province next Cassamire, is fully master of the Hindostan language, and always conversed with Mr. BOGLE in it; but the people, who are persuaded he understands all languages, believed he spoke to him in English, or, as they call it, the European tongue. The Russian Empire was the only one in Europe known to him: he has a high idea of its riches and strength, and had heard of its wars and success against the Empire of Rome (for so they call the Turkish state); but could not conceive it could be in any wise a match for Cathay. Many of the Tartar subjects of Russia come to Thibet; and the Czar has even, at various times, sent letters and presents to the Lama. Mr. BOGLE saw many European articles in his hands; pictures, looking-glasses, and trinkets of gold, silver, and steel, chiefly English, which  
he



he had received that way, particularly a GRAHAM's repeating watch, which had been dead, as they said, for some time. While he was there, several Mongols and Calmucs arrived from Siberia, with whom he conversed.

The city of Lahassa, which is the capital, is of no inconsiderable size, and is represented as populous and flourishing. It is the residence of the chief officers of government, and of the Chinese mandarins and their suite. It is also inhabited by Chinese and Cassemirian merchants and artificers, and is the daily resort of numberless traders from all quarters, who come in occasional parties, or in stated caravans. The waters of the Great River, as it is emphatically called in their language, wash its walls. Father DUHALDE, with great accuracy, traces this river, which he never suspects to be the Baram-pooter, from its origin in the Cassemirian mountains (probably from the same spring which gives rise to the Ganges) through the great valley of Thibet, till, turning suddenly to the southward, he loses it in the kingdom of Affam; but still, with great judgement and probability of conjecture, supposes it reaches the Indian sea somewhere in Pegu or Aracan. The truth is, however, that it turns suddenly again in the middle of Affam, and, traversing that country westerly, enters Bengal towards Rangamatty, under the above-mentioned name, and thence

bending its course more southerly, joins the Ganges, its sister and rival, with an equal, if not more copious stream; forming at the conflux a body of running fresh water, hardly to be paralleled in the known world, which disembogues itself into the Bay of Bengal. Two such rivers uniting in this happy country, with all the beauty, fertility, and convenience which they bring, well entitles it to the name of the Paradise of Nations, always bestowed upon it by the Moguls.

The chief trade from Lahaffa to Pekin is carried on by caravans that employ full two years in the journey thither and back again; which is not surprizing, when we consider that the distance cannot be less than two thousand English miles; and yet it is to be observed, that an express from Lahaffa reaches Pekin in three weeks, a circumstance much to the honour of the Chinese police, which knows to establish so speedy and effectual a communication through mountains and desarts for so long a way. The trade with Siberia is carried on by caravans to Seling, which is undoubtedly the Selinginsky of the Russian travellers on the borders of Baykal lake. And this accounts for an extraordinary fact mentioned by BELL; that, on the banks of the river of that name, he one day found a man busy in redeeming, from some boys who were angling, the fish they caught, and throwing them into the

the

the water again; and from this circumstance, and the mark on his forehead, knew him to be an Indian. On conversing with him, he found his conjecture to be right. The man told him, he came from Madrafs, had been two years on his journey, and mentioned by name some of the principal English gentlemen there. This Indian, no doubt, must have travelled as a Faquier or Sunniassy through Bengal into Thibet, and from thence passed with the caravan to Selinginsky, where BELL found him. It is proper to remark, that the Indians have an admirable method of turning godliness into great gain, it being usual for the Faquiers to carry with them, in their pilgrimages from the sea-coasts to the interior parts, pearls, corals, spices, and other precious articles, of small bulk, which they exchange on their return for gold-dust, musk, and other things of a similar nature, concealing them easily in their hair and in the cloths round their middle, and carrying on, considering their numbers, no inconsiderable traffic by these means. The Goffeigns are also of a religious order, but in dignity above the Faquiers; and they drive a more extensive and a more open trade with that country.

A particular account of the commerce would be foreign to the purport of this letter; but, as it would leave the information which I wish to convey very incom-

pleat, did I not mention the sources from which this country, so apparently poor and unfruitful, draws a supply of the foreign articles of convenience and luxury, which I have occasionally said they possess; I shall just observe, that, besides their less traffic with their neighbours in horses, hogs, rock-salt, coarse cloths, and other articles, they enjoy four staple articles, which are sufficient in themselves to procure every foreign commodity of which they stand in need; all of which are natural productions, and deserve to be particularly noticed. The first, though the least considerable, is that of the cow-tails, so famous all over India, Persia, and the other kingdoms of the East. It is produced by a species of cow or bullock different from what I believe is found in any other country. It is of a larger size than the common Thibet breed, has short horns, and no hump on its back. Its skin is covered with whitish hair of a silky appearance; but its chief singularity is in its tail, which spreads out broad and long, with flowing hairs, like that of a beautiful mare, but much finer and far more glossy. Mr. BOGLE sent down two of this breed to Mr. HASTINGS, but they died before they reached Calcutta. The tails sell very high, and are used, mounted on silver handles, for Chowras, or brushes, to chase away the flies; and no man of consequence in India ever goes out, or sits in  
form

form at home, without two Chowrawbadars, or brushers, attending him, with such instruments in their hands.

The next article is the wool from which the Shaul, the most delicate woollen manufacture in the world, so much prized in the East, and now so well known in England, is made. Till Mr. BOGLE's journey our notions on that subject were very crude and imperfect. As the Shauls all come from Caffemire, we concluded the material from which they were fabricated to be also of that country's growth. It was said to be the hair of a particular goat, the fine under hair from a camel's breast, and a thousand other fancies; but we now know it for certain to be the produce of a Thibet sheep. Mr. HASTINGS had one or two of these in his paddock when I left Bengal. They are of a small breed, in figure nothing differing from our sheep, except in their tails, which are very broad; but their fleeces, for the fineness, length, and beauty of the wool, exceed all others in the world. The Caffemirians engross this article, and have factors established for its purchase in every part of Thibet, from whence it is sent to Caffemire, where it is worked up, and becomes a source of great wealth to that country, as well as it is originally to Thibet.

Musk is another of their staple articles, of which it will be needless to say much, as the nature, quality, and value,

value of this precious commodity are so well known in Europe. I shall only remark, that the deer which produces it is common in the mountains; but being excessively shy, and frequenting solely the places the most wild and difficult of access, it becomes a trade of great trouble and danger to hunt after. We have the musk sent down to Calcutta in the natural bag, not without great risk of its being adulterated; but still it is far superior to any thing of the kind that is to be met with in sale in Europe.

The last of the articles which I reckon staple is gold, of which great quantities are exported from Thibet. It is found in the sands of the Great River, as well as in most of the small brooks and torrents that pour from the mountains. The quantity gathered in this manner, though considerable with respect to national gain, pays the individual but very moderately for the labour bestowed on it. But, besides this, there are mines of that metal in the northern parts, which are the reserved property of the Lama, and rented out to those who work them. It is not found in ore, but always in a pure metallic state (as I believe it to be the case in all other mines of this metal) and only requires to be separated from the spar, stone, or flint, to which it adheres. Mr. HASTINGS had a lump sent to him at Calcutta, of about the size of  
a bullock's

a bullock's kidney, which was a hard flint veined with solid gold. He caused it to be sawed in two, and it was found throughout interlarded (if I may be allowed the expression) with the purest metal. Although they have this gold in great plenty in Thibet, they do not employ it in coin, of which their government never strikes any; but it is still used as a medium of commerce, and goods are rated there by the purse of gold-duft, as here by money. The Chinese draw it from them to a great amount every year, in return for the produce of their labour and arts.

I could wish to add to this account something respecting the plants and other botanical productions of this country; but I would not presume to offer any thing but what is authentic and exact, as far as my knowledge goes. Mr. BOGLE will no doubt be able to satisfy the learned in that branch, respecting many things of which I have at present no information. He sent down to Calcutta many seeds, grains, kernels, and fruits, part of which only arrived safe. Of the last I tasted several, they were chiefly of the European sorts, such as peaches, apples, pears, &c. and therefore more desirable for us in Bengal; but they were all to me insipid and bad.

I am now, SIR, to close these remarks with craving your forgiveness for having thus started a new subject of

curiosity, without the means of giving more complete light concerning it. Time and opportunity may put more in my power on my return to India. In the mean time, I hope the Society will accept as a rarity the translation of the original letter which the Tayshoo Lama wrote to Mr. HASTINGS, by the envoy whom he sent to solicit a peace for the Deb Rajah. It came into my hands in the course of my office, and by the permission of the Governor general I retained a copy.

The original is in Persian, a language which the Lama was obliged to employ, that of Thibet, although very elegant and expressive, as it is said, being totally unintelligible in Bengal. A letter under the sanction of a character so long talked of in the western world, but so little known, alone renders it an object of curiosity; but, when it is found to contain sentiments of justice, benevolence, and piety, couched in a simple style, not without dignity, and in general exempt from the high-flown compliments and strained metaphors so common among the other people of the East, I have no doubt of its being received with approbation; at any rate, it will serve as a specimen of the way of thinking and writing among a people whose country and manners I have made the subject of the foregoing sketch.

*Translation*



*Translation of a Letter from the Tayshoo Lama to Mr.  
HASTINGS, Governor of Bengal, received the 29th of  
March, 1774.*

THE affairs of this quarter in every respect flourish: I am night and day employed for the increase of your happiness and prosperity. Having been informed, by travellers from your quarter, of your exalted fame and reputation, my heart, like the blossom of spring, abounds with satisfaction, gladness, and joy. Praise God that the star of your fortune is in its ascension. Praise him, that happiness and ease are the surrounding attendants of myself and family. Neither to molest or persecute is my aim; it is even the characteristic of our sect to deprive ourselves of the necessary refreshment of sleep, should an injury be done to a single individual; but in justice and humanity, I am informed you far surpass us. May you ever adorn the seat of justice and power, that mankind may, in the shadow of your bosom, enjoy the blessings of peace and affluence! By your favour I am the Rajah and Lama of this country, and rule over a

number of subjects; a particular with which you have no doubt been acquainted by travellers from these parts. I have been repeatedly informed, that you have been engaged in hostilities against the Dah Terria, to which it is said the Dah's own criminal conduct, in committing ravages and other outrages on your frontiers, gave rise. As he is of a rude and ignorant race, past times are not destitute of the like misconduct which his avarice tempted him to commit. It is not unlikely but he has now renewed those instances, and the ravages and plunder which he may have committed on the skirts of the Bengal and Bahar provinces, have given you provocation to send your vindictive army against him. However, his party has been defeated, many of his people have been killed, three forts have been taken from him, and he has met with the punishment he deserved. It is as evident as the Sun that your army has been victorious; and that, if you had been desirous of it, you might in the space of two days have entirely extirpated him, for he had not power to resist your efforts. But I now take upon me to be his mediator; and to represent to you, that, as the said Dah Terria is dependant upon the Dalai Lama, who rules in this country with unlimited sway (but, on account of his being in his minority, the charge of the govern-

ment

ment and administration for the present is committed to me) should you persist in offering further molestation to the Dah's country, it will irritate both the Lama and all his subjects against you. Therefore, from a regard to our religion and customs, I request you will cease all hostilities against him; and in doing this you will confer the greatest favour and friendship upon me. I have reprimanded the Dah for his past conduct; and I have admonished him to desist from his evil practices in future, and to be submissive to you in all things. I am persuaded he will conform to the advice which I have given him; and it will be necessary that you treat him with compassion and clemency. As to my part, I am but a Faquier<sup>(a)</sup>; and it is the custom of my sect, with the rosary in our hands, to pray for the welfare of mankind, and for the peace and happiness of the inhabitants of this country; and I do now, with my head uncovered, intreat that you may cease all hostilities against the Dah in future. It would be needless to add to the length of this letter, as the bearer of it, who is a Goseign<sup>(b)</sup>, will represent to

(a) The original being in Persian, this word is used, which can only be applied with propriety to a person of the Mussulman faith: here it can only mean a religious person in general. Perhaps monk would have been the best translation.

(b) This means a religious person of the Hindoo sect.

you all particulars; and it is hoped you will comply therewith. . In this country, worship of the Almighty is the profession of all. We poor creatures are in nothing equal to you; having, however, a few things in hand, I send them to you by way of remembrance, and hope for your acceptance of them.



XXVI. *Of the Degrees and Quantities of Winds requisite to move the heavier Kinds of Wind Machines. In a Letter from John Stedman, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians at Edinburgh, to the Reverend Samuel Horsley, LL.D. Secretary to the Royal Society.*

S I R,

Edinburgh,  
March 27, 1777.

Read Apr. 24, 1776. **T**HE irregularity and uncertainty of winds in this country have been found a considerable discouragement to erect wind machines. It hath frequently happened, that the proprietors of coal and other works, after having reared these kinds of engines, and having found them insufficient for the intended work, have been obliged to open mines, or to erect fire machines. This is chiefly owing to the undertakers reckoning upon more winds of a sufficient power to move these machines, than we commonly have in this country.

These machines are rarely erected with us, unless where a considerable moving power is necessary. This is always the case where the larger kind of pump-work is to be kept in motion, or where water is to be extracted from:

from deep pits. Having enquired of many people concerned in such works, what may be the proportion of time in which wind machines may be kept in motion, to that in which they cannot move from a defect of wind, I found these people differing widely in their conjectures.

Having, however, met with one gentleman of observation and accuracy, who had erected a wind machine for draining his coal; he told me that, by the best computation he had been able to make, he never could depend upon more than fifty-three or fifty-four hours of wind sufficient for moving that machine, in a week, taking the year round. This is below what is commonly believed to be the proportion; but, so far as this can be rated by an estimate in the following manner, it will be found to be much about what may be depended upon for the heaviest kinds of machines; still making allowance for the differences of exposures, and for the strength and frequency of winds in one part of the country more than in another. We may here take notice of a circumstance favourable to the draining of coal-pits; that is, that the periods of the year in which the greatest quantities of rain fall, are likewise observed to abound with winds of the higher degrees. This seldom fails to hold in hilly countries, and particularly in those of high latitudes; that is, where the differences of heats in summer

and of colds in winter are very considerable. The periods of the year here meant will generally be found to fall near the Equinoxes.

The only method of bringing the matter to a proper estimate is, by comparing the quantities of winds sufficient for moving these machines, with those of winds below that degree, and calms. This computation can only be drawn from journals in which the degrees of winds are noted. In the meteorological register of the Medical Effays of the Edinburgh Society, there is a column of winds, and four degrees are noted. This division is sufficient for the purposes for which that register was intended; but, when we consider the wind as a power acting upon machines, that number of degrees will be found too small.

Thus, from the second in that register to a hurricane, there is but one intermediate degree. As the second degree, which is very moderate, is insufficient for moving these machines; the third is more than just enough for that purpose. A degree, therefore, which is a mean betwixt these two, will be found to be the lowest that is sufficient for moving machines of the heavier kinds, particularly such as are used for pumping water out of coal-pits.

These

These three degrees of wind, that is the second and third of the Edinburgh register, and an intermediate degree, are very distinguishable even by the senses, and without the assistance of any instrument, by those who are attentive and have been accustomed to make observations of this nature.

To ascertain proportions of this nature, a longer term of years would have been more satisfactory; but, in case others should afterwards pursue this kind of computation, the proportions are digested in two tables at the end of this essay, and may be consulted occasionally.

In making up these tables, *viz.* one of the second degree and above, and the other of the third and upwards, hurricanes are included, though that degree of wind be too high for any machine. But, as the observations were taken twice in twenty-four hours, and as winds sufficient to move these machines may be supposed to have happened sometimes between the times of observation, though at these times the wind might have been below the mean; to compensate this defect, hurricanes are included in the computation.

From these tables then we have the following proportions of the two degrees of winds and upwards, to those below; and likewise of the mean betwixt those two degrees.

Winds



	Days.
Winds of the second degree and upwards in each week, — — — }	4.283
Calms and winds below the second degree,	2.717
Winds of the third degree and upwards,	0.902
Calms and winds below the third degree,	6.098
Winds of a mean proportion between the two preceding degrees, — — — }	2.592
Calms and winds below the mean degree,	4.408

The proportion of these winds in the year comes out in weeks and fractional parts thus:

	Weeks.
Winds of the second degree and upwards in the year, — — — }	31.903
Calms and winds below the second degree,	20.239
Winds of the third degree and upwards,	6.719
Calms and winds below the third degree,	45.423
Winds of a mean proportion between the two preceding, — — — }	19.307
Calms and winds below the mean, —	32.835

From this computation we have 2.592 days in a week,  
or 19,307 weeks in a year, in which wind machines of

the heavier kinds, and of considerable friction, may be supposed to be kept in motion; which, to the times wherein they cannot go, is as 10 to 17.

It may be observed, that the resistance to the machine, or its weight and friction, being diminished, though in a small degree, will add considerably to the frequency and length of times in which it can go; since it often happens that there are winds immediately below the lowest degree in the preceding estimate, sufficient to keep the lighter machines in motion. Hence those who have machines which are not absolutely of the heaviest kind, will be apt to conclude this computation erroneous. Besides, there are few who make allowance for, or attend to, the universal law which obtains in mechanics, that in larger machines, their power doth not increase in a proportion so high as their bulk and the resistance arising from their friction.

Computations of this nature, if carried on for a sufficient length of time, might be of some use in regulating insurances, or in pointing out the risks of nautical adventurers, when made in the same climates with the calculation of winds.

Here I should have concluded; but having, after writing what is above, committed these tables and observations to the examination of a learned member of your Society,

ciety, much conversant in these matters, I had the satisfaction to find that he thought them worthy to be communicated to the Royal Society; but remarked, that the materials, which I had proceeded upon, were not so applicable to the purpose as could have been wished. He thinks, that the degrees of winds, being only distinguished into four in the journals from whence those tables have been compiled, are much too few to take in those of the weaker kind, that will however turn well-constructed wind-mills. Indeed I regretted that the table from which I made my estimate contained so few degrees; but it was for that reason I calculated an intermediate degree between the second and the third of our meteorological register. Now as all the degrees above that intermediate degree are sufficient to move the heaviest machine, and the degrees below it insufficient for that purpose, so far as I have been able to observe, it comes to be the same as if the table, from which I made the estimate, had consisted of eight degrees, supposing a mean proportion to be found between the other degrees: thus, 0,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , 1,  $1\frac{1}{2}$ , 2,  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , &c. this last number  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , being the lowest degree which I find sufficient for the heaviest machines, would have been 5, had these fractional parts been integers in the table, so that the highest degree, instead of 4 would have been 8. The mean, therefore,

between 2 and 3 being found, will, if I mistake not, answer the preceding objection.

This worthy member, at the end of his observations, says, a mill so constructed may be expected to go the half of the year; that is, I presume, a wind-mill constructed in the neatest and most ingenious manner. But this, I have reason to believe, is far from being the case with wind-mills in this country, they being for the most part clumsy. I doubt not but wind-mills, the construction of which this ingenious gentleman hath directed, though of the same size and consisting of the same numbers with those I have seen here, will nevertheless be moved by a lower degree of wind, and consequently will go a greater proportion of time, though they have the same resistance to overcome as others less artificially constructed. Indeed the same wind machine, as is well known, will require a degree of wind considerably higher when its joints are dry or become gummy, than when they are sufficiently greased. In my estimate I have all along had an eye to the wind machines which have the greatest resistance to overcome, and consequently the machines themselves of the largest kind. But when the learned gentleman supposes a machine to go one half of the year, he may perhaps not understand one absolutely of the

the.

*of Winds requisite to move heavy Wind Machines.* 501  
the largest kind. Now as the powers of similar machines, but of different magnitudes, are as their cubes, but the resistance arising from their weight and friction as the fourth power; it follows, that a small difference in the size of two or more wind machines will require considerable differences in the winds necessary for their movements.

I am, &c.

T A B L E I.

Shewing the Proportion of winds of the second degree and upwards, to those of the first and below, for five years.

	Proportion of winds of the 2d degree to those of the first, &c. in 1731 and 1732.		Proportion, &c. in 1732 and 1733.		Proportion, &c. in 1733 and 1734.		Proportion, &c. in 1734 and 1735.		Proportion, &c. in 1735 and 1736.		Sum of each month for five-years.	
	Winds.	Calms, &c.	Winds.	Calms, &c.	Winds.	Calms, &c.	Winds.	Calms, &c.	Winds.	Calms, &c.	Winds.	Calms, &c.
June	16	44	46	14	26	34	24	36	41	19	153	147
July	7	55	44	18	39	23	29	33	43	19	162	148
August	8	54	27	35	20	42	28	34	47	15	130	180
September	30	30	24	36	40	20	34	26	34	26	162	138
October	26	36	13	49	36	26	31	31	35	27	141	169
November	39	21	18	42	51	9	16	44	33	25	157	141
December	43	19	29	33	38	24	46	16	41	21	197	113
January	55	7	43	19	35	27	58	4	45	17	236	74
February	45	13	46	10	48	8	47	9	42	16	228	56
March	39	23	50	12	40	22	53	9	46	16	228	82
April	44	16	34	26	42	18	46	14	46	14	212	88
May	54	8	28	34	36	26	55	7	57	5	230	80
Sum of years and months,	406	326	402	328	451	279	467	263	510	220	2236	1416

T A B L E II.

Shewing the proportion of winds of the third degree and upwards, to those of the second and below, for five years.

	Proportion, of winds of the 3d degree to those of the first, &c. in 1731 and 1732.		Proportion, &c. in 1732 and 1733.		Proportion, &c. in 1733 and 1734.		Proportion, &c. in 1734 and 1735.		Proportion, &c. in 1735 and 1736.		Sum of each month for five years.	
	Winds.	Calm's, &c.	Winds.	Calm's, &c.	Winds.	Calm's, &c.	Winds.	Calm's, &c.	Winds.	Calm's, &c.	Winds.	Calm's, &c.
June	1	59	—	60	3	57	2	58	1	59	7	233
July	1	61	7	55	11	51	5	57	1	61	25	285
August	—	62	—	62	8	54	3	59	—	62	48	252
September	13	47	9	51	10	50	8	52	8	52	11	299
October	9	53	1	61	12	50	11	51	2	60	35	275
November	11	49	8	52	19	41	2	58	6	54	46	254
December	17	45	4	58	12	50	9	53	4	58	46	264
January	5	57	11	51	9	53	18	44	6	56	49	261
February	24	34	20	36	24	32	12	44	7	51	87	197
March	12	50	10	52	18	44	6	56	5	57	51	259
April	9	51	5	55	9	51	8	52	5	55	36	264
May	7	55	—	62	9	53	10	52	4	58	30	280
Sum of years and months,	109	623	75	655	144	586	94	636	49	683	471	3183

XXVII. *Description of the Jesuits Bark Tree of Jamaica and the Caribbees.* By William Wright, M.D. Member of the Philosophical Society of America, and Surgeon-general in Jamaica. Communicated by Joseph Banks, Esquire, F. R. S.

Read April 24, 1777. **T**HIS species of Jesuits bark grows on stony lands near the sea-shore, in the parishes of St. James and Hanover, on the north-side of Jamaica; and I found one small tree, at a little distance from the fort, at Martha Brae in the parish of Trelawny. The tree is called the Sea-side Beech, and rises only to twenty feet. The trunk is not thick in proportion, but hard, tough, and of a yellowish-white colour in the inside. The branches and leaves are opposite; the leaves are of a rusty green, and the young buds of a blueish green hue. It blossoms in November, and continues in flower till February, having on the same tree or sprig, flowers and ripe pods. The flowers are of a dusky yellow colour, and the pods black: when ripe they split in two, and are, with their flat brown seeds, in every respect similar to those



those of the *Cinchona officinalis* as depicted in a plate sent out by Mr. BANKS.

The bark of this tree in general is smooth and grey on the outside, though in some rough and scabrous. When well dried, the inside is of a dark-brown colour. Its flavour at first is sweet, with a mixture of the taste of horse-radish and of aromatics of the East; but, when swallowed, of that very bitterness and astringency which characterises the Peruvian bark. It yields these qualities strongly to water both when cold and in decoction. Half an ounce, boiled from two pounds to one pound of water, made as strong a decoction as three times its weight of the *Cinchona vera*. The colour was brown, but not turbid.

I have had many opportunities of trying its effects, especially in remittents, which are the most common and fatal fevers in these climes. A vomit or gentle purge, if necessary, was first given; and then immediately this bark so soon as they operated. I observed that it strengthened the stomach, checked retching and vomiting, corrected morbid humours in *primæ viæ*, and conquered speedily the disease. My success in such a dangerous malady leaves not a doubt on my mind, but that it will prove equally efficacious in every other case where a tonic and antiseptic medicine is indicated.

CINCHONA JAMAICENSIS, seu CARIBBEANA.

CINCHONA CARIBÆA, *Linn. Spec. Plant.* 245.

FOL. ovata, integerrima, acuta, enervia, opposita.

FLOR. singulares, axillares.

CAL. *Perianthium* monophyllum, superum, quinquefidum, minimum, persistens, campanulatum, obsoletissimè quinquedentatum.

COR. monopetala, infundibuliformis. *Tubus* cylindraceus, longissimus: *Limbus* quinquepartitus, tubo equalis: *Laciniis* ovatis, oblongis, reflexis, quandoque pendulis.

STAM. *Filamenta* quinque, filiformia, erecta e medio tubi, longitudine corollæ. *Antherae* longissimæ, obtusæ, erectæ supra basin anteriorem, affixæ in fauce corollæ.

CAPS. bipartibilis in duas partes dissipatione parallelo, latere inferiore dehiscens.

SEM. plurima, compressa, marginata, oblonga.









*Corchorus Jamaicensis*



XXVIII. *Description and Use of the Cabbage-bark Tree of Jamaica.* By William Wright, M. D.; communicated by Richard Brocklesby, M. D. F. R. S.

Read May 1, 1777. **T**HE Cabbage-bark tree, or Worm-bark tree, grows in most parts of Jamaica, and particularly abounds in the low Savannahs of St. Mary and St. George. It rises to a considerable height, but no great thickness, sending off branches towards the top of a straight, smooth trunk. The leaves are, when young, of a light-green hue; when full-grown, of a dark-green colour; and before they drop, of a rusty appearance.

The flower-spike is long and beautifully branched. The flowers are numerous; their *calyces* of a dark purple; their *petals* of the colour of the pale-rose; the *nectaria* must contain much honey, as thousands of bees, beetles of various kinds, butter-flies, and humming-birds, are continually feeding thereon.

The *pericarpium* is a green, hard fruit, of the size of the smaller plumb. The skin is of the thickness of a crown-piece; and tastes very austere. The kernel is covered with a brown skin like that of other nuts; it is very hard, and tastes astringent.





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The wood is hard, and takes a good polish. It is however fit only for rafters or other parts of small buildings; but this tree is valued chiefly for its bark, which externally is of a grey colour, and the inside black and furrowed.

Fresh cabbage-bark tastes mucilaginous, sweet, and insipid. Its smell, however, is rather disagreeable, and it retains it in the decoction; hence by some called the bulge-water tree.

Mr. PETER DUGUID, formerly of this island, seems to have been the first that gave any account of the virtues of this bark, in the *Edinburgh Essays, Physical and Literary*, vol. II. The experiments he promised have never yet appeared. It is certain it has powerful effects, and its anthelmintic quality is established by the experience of several ages. It is at present in general use here, and begins to be known in Europe. No description having yet appeared, I have supplied that defect as far as my abilities in Botany reached. It remains now to proceed to its exhibition, and the purposes it is meant to answer as a medicine.

Cabbage-bark may be given in different forms; as in decoction, syrup, powder, and extract. I have used them all, and shall speak of them separately.

The decoction. Take fresh-dried or well-preserved cabbage-bark, one ounce. Boil it in a quart of water, over a slow fire, till the water is of an amber colour, or rather of deep coloured Madeira wine; strain it off, sweeten it with sugar, and let it be used immediately, as it does not keep many days.

Syrup of Cabbage-bark. To any quantity of the above decoction add a double portion of sugar, and make a syrup. This will retain its virtues for years.

The extract of cabbage-bark is made by evaporating the strong decoction in *balneo mariae* to the proper consistence; it must be continually stirred, as otherwise the resinous part rises to the top, and on this probably its efficacy depends.

The powder of well-dried bark is easily made, and looks like jallap, though not of equal specific gravity.

This bark, like most other powerful anthelmintics, has a narcotic effect; and on this account it is always proper to begin with small doses, which may be gradually increased till a nausea is excited, when the dose for that patient is ascertained. But by frequent use we can in common determine the dose, though we chuse to err rather on the safe side.

A strong healthy grown person may, at first, take four table spoonfuls of the decoction or syrup, three grains of the extract, or thirty grains of the powder for a dose.

A youth.

A youth, three table spoonfuls of the decoction or syrup, two grains of extract, or twenty grains of powder.

A person of ten years of age, two table spoonfuls of the decoction or syrup, one grain and a half of extract, or fifteen grains of the powder.

Children of two or three years old, a table spoonful of the decoction or syrup, one grain of extract, or ten grains of the powder. Children of a year old, half the quantity.

These may be increased, as above observed, till a nausea is excited, which will depend on the strength, sex, and habit of body of the patient.

Care must be taken that cold water be not drank during the operation of this medicine, as it is in this case apt to occasion sickness, vomiting, fever, and delirium. When this happens, or when an over large dose has been given, the stomach must be washed with warm water: the patient must speedily be purged with Castor-oil and use plenty of lime-juice beverage for common drink; vegetable acid being a powerful antidote in this case, as well as in an over dose of opium.

The decoction is what is mostly given here, and seldom fails to perform every thing that can be expected from an anthelmintic medicine, by destroying worms in the intestines, and bringing them away in great quantities. By frequent use, however, these animals become fami-

liarized, and we find it necessary to intermit it, or have recourse to others of inferior merit.

The writers of the Edinburgh Medical Commentaries take notice, that the decoction of cabbage-bark always excites vomiting. We find no such effect from it here, and may account for it by their receiving it in a mouldy state. A fyrup, therefore, is given there with better effect. They observe also that it has a diuretic virtue, which we have not taken notice of here.

This bark purges pretty briskly, especially in powder, thirty or forty grains working as well as jallap by stool; but in this way it does not seem to kill worms so well as in decoction.

Five grains of the extract made a strong man sick, and purged him several times; but, by frequent use, he took ten grains to produce at length the same effect.

It must not be concealed that fatal accidents have happened from the imprudent administration of this bark, chiefly from over-dosing the medicine. But this cannot detract from the merit of the cabbage-bark, since the best medicines, when abused, become deleterious; and even our best aliments, in too great quantity, prove destructive. Upon the whole, the cabbage-bark is a most valuable remedy, and I hope will become an addition to the *materia medica*.

## GEOFFRÆA JAMAICENSIS INERMIS.

FOL. opposita, oblongo-ovata, ternata, acuminata, superne glabra, inferne enervia, petiolis brevibus.

CAL. *Perianthium* monophyllum, campanulatum, levissimè quinquepartitum, laciniis ovatis, brevibus.

COR. papilionacea: *Vexillum* subrotundum, concavum:

*Alæ* obtusæ, concavæ, longitudine vexilli. *Carina* ovata, patens, in duabus partibus levissimè divisa.

STAM. diadelpa, decem, filiformia, in calyce inserta, longitudine alarum. *Anthere* subrotundæ.

PIST. subulatum, filiforme. *Stigma* nullum. *Germe* ovato-oblongum, compressum.

PER. *Drupa* sub-ovata, magna.

SEM. *Nux* sub-ovata, sub-ligneæ, sulco utrinque longitudinali, bivalvis.

The botanical reader will see how nearly this agrees with the *Geoffræa spinosa* of LINNÆUS. The Genera of plants are sufficiently multiplied, and it was thought best to make this a species only.









*mimosa pudica*

*Linnaeus*





made expressly in London and Paris, in order to make such experiments as might present themselves to me *en courrant*; and which, either from want of acquaintance with the subject, want of time, or want of money, become rarely the object of travellers; but remain wholly unknown till princely munificence and philosophic zeal (of which we have a recent instance) unite in producing them to the world. After the very celebrated and ingenious labours of Mr. DE LUC, farther investigation of the subject of barometrical measurement might seem unnecessary, if not invidious; but, furnished as I was with an apparatus every way sufficient for the inquiry, finding myself in the country which had been the scene of his operations, and possessing some share of his own zeal, I could not but gratify the curiosity I had to verify and repeat his experiments: if therefore in the pursuit of this inquiry I should be led to a conclusion something different from the result of his own observations, I am convinced that this distinguished observer, of whose candour and talents I have an equal opinion, will impute it wholly to a love for truth; as with me the precept applies as strongly to the philosopher as to the historian, *Ne quid falsi audeat, ne quid veri non audeat dicere.*

But to proceed. The instruments I made use of in these operations were, two of RAMSDEN's barometers <sup>(a)</sup>; three or four thermometers detached from the barometers, whose boiling and freezing points I had examined myself; an equatorial instrument, the circles of which were about seven inches diameter, made by RAMSDEN; a fifty-feet steel measuring chain; and three three-foot rods, two of deal and one of brass, in order to examine and correct the chain, these latter made by BARADELLE at Paris. Besides these I took with me a little bell-tent, which I found of great use, as it defended me from the wind and sun; and I may remark, that the observations of the uppermost barometer were made in the tent.

My first series of observations I proposed to be on Mont Saleve <sup>(b)</sup>, one of the Alps, situated about two

(a) It may not be improper to remark, that the specific gravity of the quicksilver of these barometers with 68° of heat was 13,61; the diameter of the bore of the tube 0,20 inch; and that of the reservoir 1,5 inch.

(b) Mont Saleve extends near nine miles in length; is not quite 3300 feet in height above the Lake. That side of it which is next Geneva is for the most part a barren rock, the north-east end of it being almost a perpendicular precipice; the other side of the mountain is less rude, of a more gentle acclivity, covered with trees, shrubs, and herbage, as is also the top, where is some of the finest pasture in the world. It is inhabited only by a few shepherds, who pass the summer months here with their cattle, in little miserable huts or barns: the remaining part of the year, viz. for about four or five months, it is covered with snow. This mountain contains chiefly a calcareous stone; and there is reason to believe that there is an iron ore in it, at least in some parts of it, as a piece Mr. DE LUC, the brother, picked up near the south-west end, I found, sensibly affected the magnet.

leagues south of Geneva, and precisely on the same point where Mr. DE LUC had made his highest or fifteenth station: this spot I learnt from his brother, whose civilities, both then and since, I shall frequently have occasion to remember and mention.

The place where I measured my base was in a field near the villages of Archamp and Neidens, not quite three miles in a horizontal line from the top of the rock whose height was to be determined (see the chart that accompanies this account). At the end of the base A I intended to place one of my barometers; and the other at the top of the rock, called the Pitton, at c; and with the above instruments measure the triangle ABC. The angles were taken both on the horary circle, which was brought parallel to the horizon, and also on the azimuth circle of the equatorial instrument; this made it, as it were, two different instruments independent of each other. The angles were moreover doubled, tripled, and quadrupled, on each arch; by this means the error of the center or axis of the instrument vanished; the possible error in the divisions, in the reading off, and in the coincidence of the wires in the telescope (which magnified forty times) with the signals placed at each angle of the triangle, was lessened in proportion to the number of times the observation was repeated; and finally the

mean

mean of all was taken. The same was done with each angle at A, B, and c, horizontal as well as vertical, viz. the elevation of c above A and B was taken; and also the depression of A and B below c. The advantage of this method was, that the error of the line of collimation, the effect of refraction, and of the curvature of the earth's surface, all became equal and contrary; by these means the little errors were diminished, and great errors absolutely avoided<sup>(c)</sup>. I shall, however, beg leave to set down the operation at length respecting this one triangle, in order to shew the precision that may be expected from such a geometrical process; to remove the scruples of those gentlemen who suspect that accuracy is only to be obtained by large quadrants; and lastly, to do justice and satisfaction to the celebrated artist who invented and made this valuable instrument.

(c) I must acknowledge here, that the attraction of the mountain creeps into the account uncorrected for, but only half of this quantity influences the mean result, as at the top it was nothing, and at the bottom of the mountain it could not exceed 10" in the direction AC, as I find from a rough computation, the half of which = 5" would give only four inches for the correction.

*Determination of the Base.*

	Ch.	Ft.	In.	Temper.
Length of the base AB (see the Chart) by the chain, } first time, — — —	55	10	0	71°
Ditto, second time, — — —	55	9	9½	76
The mean, — — —	55	9	10.87	73½
		Ft.	In.	
By frequent previous observations I determined (d) the length of the chain by comparison with the brass standard rod } reduced to 60° of heat, — — —	50	0	0	60
Correction for 13½° of heat from expansion, — — —		+0	0.05	
Diameter of the pins or arrows, one of which was used at each chain, and in such manner, that this correction be- came always + — — —		+0	0.16	
Correct length of the chain as it was used in measuring the } base, — — —	50	0	21	
Multiply by the number of entire chains in the base, — — —			55	
		2750	11.55	
Add the parts of a chain, — — —		+9	10.87	
True length of the base, as it was measured, — — —		2760	10.42	
Correction for the defect of level, taken with an instru- } ment made on purpose, each time the chain was placed, }		—	0.76 (c)	
The true horizontal distance between A and B becomes, — — —		2760	9.66	

*Deter-*

(d) It may be required, to what precision I could determine the length of any chain? I think certainly to within  $\frac{1}{1000}$  of an inch, or  $\frac{1}{2000}$  of the whole length. The common GUNTER'S chain of the shops is always subject to spring and stretch considerably; mine was made of hardened steel, on purpose to avoid this defect. It however still preserved some degree of elasticity, for when pulled with a force of about ten pounds, it seemed = 0.12 inch longer than when laid gently on the floor without being stretched at all: the assumed length of the chain was such as seemed to me probable from a moderate tension in common

*Determination of the angles by the equatorial.*

		On the azimuth circle.	On the equat. circle, the horary being converted into gradual divisions.
$\angle A$ by the 1st observation	—	$58^{\circ} 27' 30''$	$58^{\circ} 28' 30''$
2d,	—	$— 29^{\circ} 0'$	$— 27^{\circ} 30'$
3d,	—	$— 28^{\circ} 30'$	$— 29^{\circ} 15'$
4th,	—	$— 30^{\circ} 15'$	$— 29^{\circ} 15'$
$\angle$ taken four times over on the arch,	—	$233^{\circ} 54' 15''$	$233^{\circ} 54' 30''$
The mean,	—	$58^{\circ} 28' 49''$	$58^{\circ} 28' 37\frac{1}{2}''$

Laftly, the mean of all from the two circles  
 $= 58^{\circ} 28' 43\frac{1}{4}'' = \angle$  at A.

$\angle B$ by the 1st observation,	—	$111^{\circ} 54' 45''$	$111^{\circ} 53' 0''$
2d,	—	$— 51^{\circ} 30'$	$— 52^{\circ} 30'$
3d,	—	$— 50^{\circ} 30'$	$— 50^{\circ} 45'$
$\angle$ taken three times over on the arch,	—	$335^{\circ} 36' 45''$	$335^{\circ} 36' 15''$
Mean,	—	$111^{\circ} 52' 15''$	$111^{\circ} 52' 5''$

Mean of all from the two circles  $= 111^{\circ} 52' 10''$   
 $= \angle$  at B.

common using it. It may perhaps not be out of place to remark here, that the rods with which the chain was examined, agreed exactly with the scales of the barometers; at least the difference in nine inches, taken in different parts of the scale, did not appear to exceed  $\frac{1}{1000}$  of an inch.

(e) The precaution in taking the inclination of the chain every time, if the base be nearly a plain, as is the case in many meadows, seems to be unnecessary; for this same correction, deduced from the inclination of the base observed at A and B, comes out —0,99 inch, only 0,23 inch different, a quantity wholly inconsiderable.

		On the azimuth circle.	On the equat. circle.
$\angle$ c by the 1st observation,	—	9° 39' 0"	— 9° 38' 30"
2d,	—	— 39 0	— 38 15
3d,	—	— 38 45	— 39 45
$\angle$ taken four times over on the arch,	—	38 35 45	— 38 34 45
Mean,	—	9 38 56 $\frac{1}{4}$	— 9 38 41 $\frac{1}{4}$

Mean of the two circles, =  $9^{\circ} 38' 48\frac{3}{4}" = \angle$  at c.

	By actual observation.	Angles finally corrected.
$\angle$ at A,	— — 58° 28' 43 $\frac{1}{4}$ "	<div> <div>These angles corrected by adding 6" to each (the sum of their errors, or defect from 180° being —18") become,</div> <div> 58° 28' 49<math>\frac{1}{4}</math>" 111 52 16 9 38 54<math>\frac{1}{4}</math>" </div> </div>
$\angle$ at E,	— — 111 52 10	
$\angle$ at C,	— — 9 38 48 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Sum of the three angles =	179 59 42	Sum, 180 0 0
Taken from	180 0 0	
Leaves the difference =	— 18	
sum of the errors,		

It is highly curious and satisfactory to see the amazing correspondency of these observations, made with an instrument of only  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches radius, whereon an angle of one minute is about equal  $\frac{1}{1300}$  inch; and I think we may fairly conclude, that the corrected mean result of these observations is true to within 6" or 8"<sup>(f)</sup>; which, as

(f) I may have a future occasion to speak of the accuracy of this instrument for astronomical purposes; but I cannot omit this opportunity of mentioning one, *viz.* in taking the latitude of the city of Amiens in Picardy, where I had thirteen observations by the stars and Sun, the mean of which differed 25" from the extremes, and only 3" from the result of Mr. CASSINI's observations, made, I believe, with a nine-feet zenith sector, as related in *La Meridienne de Paris vérifiée*.



*in order to ascertain the height of Mountains.* 521

may be proved hereafter, would occasion an error of only three feet in the distance of the mountains, and seven inches in the height. I proceed next to the vertical angles.

*Determination of the inclination of the sides AC, BC, and AB, with the horizon; the height of the eye at the instrument being four feet above the ground.*

Altitude from below at A.				Depression from above at C.						
Inclination of AC,	—	10	33	2	Correct for the signal,	—	10	29	18	
Correction for the part of the signal which was observed,	}	—	1	38	— for the line of col- limation,	—	}	+	16	
Correction for the line of collimation,		—	0	59	— for refraction,	—		+	59	
Correct for the refraction,	—	0	27					+	27	
True Altitude of c from A,		10	29	58	True depression of A from c,		10	31	0	
					Arch intercepted between, or curvature,	—	}	—	2	30
					True altitude of c from A deduced from the obser- vation at c,		}	10	28	30

Mean corrected altitude of c from A =  $10^{\circ} 29' 14''$  (g).

(g) If the computation were to be made from either of the observations taken separately, the difference would amount to only three feet in the height of c; and this may either be in the correction of the line of collimation, the effect of refraction, or in mistaking the part of the signal that was observed; for, whilst I was gone to the top of the mountain, some peasants possessed themselves of the handkerchiefs I had fixed to the signals below in order to have a conspicuous and determined point.

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Altitude from below at B.				Depression from above at C.			
	°	'	"		°	'	"
Inclination of BC, —	11	20	26	Correct for the signal, —	11	19	47
Correct for the part of the signal observed, —	—	1	38	Error of collimation, —	—	+	59
Error of collimation, —	—	0	59	Effect of refraction, —	—	+	26
Correct for refraction, —	—	0	26				
<hr/>				<hr/>			
True altitude of c from B,	11	17	23	True depression of B from c,	11	20	18
				Arch intercepted, or cur- vature, —	—	2	18
				<hr/>			
				True altitude of c from B, deduced from the ob- servation at C, —	11	18	0
				<hr/>			

Mean of the two, or corrected altitude of c from B  
 $= 11^{\circ} 17' 41\frac{1}{2}''$ .

Altitude at A.				Depression at B.			
	°	'	"		°	'	"
∠ of inclination of AB } the base, —	0	27	0	Error of collimation, —	—	+	59
Error of the line of col- limation, —	—	0	59	Correct depression of A } from B, —	0	28	3
<hr/>				Arch intercepted, —	—	0	27
Correct altitude of B from A,	0	26	1	<hr/>			
				Altitude of B from A de- duced from the obser- vation at B, —	0	27	36
				<hr/>			

Mean of the two, or corrected altitude of B from A  
 $= 0^{\circ} 26' 49''^{(b)}$ .

(b) It should seem from these two observations, that the error of the line of collimation had been assumed too great; it has however, as I have before observed, nothing to do with the mean result: and this is, perhaps, one of the best means of discovering the error of collimation, and the very method Mr. DE LUC used, to adjust his level, though, as I have been informed by his brother, without taking into the account the effect of curvature, which, if his horizontal marks were 2000 feet distant from each other, would amount to 20'', and the error to half that quantity.

I have thus, in a manner rather prolix, given a detail of the methods used to ascertain the quantity of the different angles. It may be of use on a like occasion, and will at least serve to determine within what limits the error of the final result may be expected to lie, as on the precision of the geometrical operations all the comparisons of the barometrical ones depend. This process once mentioned will exempt me and the reader from the trouble a second time, when he is informed, that the same fidelity and pains were employed (where the circumstances would admit) in all the trigonometrical observations, of which the annexed chart is a summary. I proceed now to the determination of the fides, the computations of which are too well known to enter into this paper.

	Feet.
Side AB	2760.8
AC	15286.4
BC	14041.7

	Feet.
These with the angles give for the height of c above A,	— 2835.07
The height of c above B,	— — 2806.27
The height of B above A,	— — — 22.18
<hr/>	
These two added give the height of c above A, deduced from the } observation at B,	2828.45
But the height by actual observation at A was,	— — — 2835.07
Then the mean of the two,	— — — 2831.76

which is probably within three or four feet of the truth, or about one foot in a thousand.

Having thus the perpendicular height, as I think, very accurately ascertained, it remained for me to take the altitude of the barometer at each station A and C, and if possible with equal precision. These observations it would be too tedious to set down at length. I shall, however, premise the following particulars. Every observation of the barometer was triple; that is, the height was read off three different times, and the mean taken; but from once reading only I could be sure of the height to  $\frac{2}{10000}$  of an inch, exclusive of the error of the divisions, which in some places might amount to that quantity; this the nonius would itself discover and even correct by estimation. At every series of observations the float at the bottom was readjusted, so that I could constantly be sure of an alteration of the weight of the atmosphere expressed by 0.002 inch of quicksilver, if not of half that quantity. Finally, the difference of the two barometers <sup>(1)</sup> was constantly taken, after being left three-quarters

ters

(1) It may be concluded, that this difference should be constant, and always the same; but, from what cause I know not, it did not appear so to me. In my journal, for the weather for 1775, I find the following note: from a mean of seventeen observations between August 12th. and Sept. 1. viz. before, at, and after, my expedition to Mont Saleve and the Mole, I find the difference between my two barometers = .0042 inch, N° 1. standing the highest; in these comparisons, however, the extremes sometimes differed from the mean = .006. And in my passage over Mont Cenis, Dec. 1. barometer N° 1. stood lower than N° 2. by

ters of an hour or more in the same place, to acquire the true temperature of the air, and this before and after every expedition. The fractional parts of a degree on both the attached and detached thermometers were noted only by estimation, but written down to 10ths, being more convenient in the computation; for I may remark, that one-third of a degree on the attached thermometer is equal to about  $\frac{1}{1000}$  inch on the barometer; this attention, therefore, to the sub-divisions of the degrees became necessary. I conclude, lastly, with presuming, that the weight <sup>(k)</sup> of any column of air may be measured with these barometers to ,008 inch, though all the errors should lye the same way.

Leaving Geneva about half past six in the morning, August 20th, I arrived at the place A of my base a little before eight; near to which there happened to be a shepherd's house, in which I left one of my barometers (N° 1.) with a servant, to examine and observe it every five or ten minutes for near nine hours successively,

by —,013 inch: it is difficult to account for this. May 10th, 1776, at Rome, N° 1. stood lowest by —,001. June 12th, at Naples, N° 1. stood lowest by —,008. Sept. 10th, in London, N° 1. stood highest by +,006. These apparent variations may possibly arise from some alteration in the frame-work of the barometers through moisture, &c.

(k) I must not be understood to mean, that the length of any column of air may be measured to an equal accuracy, even though our theory should be perfect: this will be the subject of inquiry in its proper place.

until

until I returned; the windows and doors of the room, in which the instrument was placed, being left open, by which means there was a free communication with the outward air, and the barometer not exposed to the Sun. The detached thermometer was hung on the window towards the north-east, where there was neither direct nor reflected heat from the Sun <sup>(1)</sup>. The two barometers

(1) I have thought proper to mention this, as it is almost the only circumstance wherein my method of observing differed from Mr. DE LUC's, whose thermometers (if I mistake not) were hung always in the Sun, and probably for this reason, because the column of the atmosphere between the two barometers, whose mean heat is to be determined, is (if the Sun shine) all exposed to the Sun. I have, however, always preferred hanging them in the shade, and I give the following reasons: all spurious and local heat from reflection is more easily avoided; no concentrated and false heat is acquired by the mounting, and thence communicated to the tube, even though the ball should be insulated; and, finally, because I suspect the real temperature of the atmosphere in the Sun and in the shade to be the same, or at least insensibly different. This may be thought to be advancing too much; but, to be satisfied of the position, I made no less than four-score observations with four different thermometers of very different mounting, hung alternately exposed to the Sun's rays, and screened from them by the shade of a tree, in an open plain at some distance from the town of Geneva. The result was, that my best thermometer, with the ball insulated, differed only  $2^{\circ}$  in the different situations; the others, more or less, as they were more or less connected with the frames in which they hung. One of them, inclosed in a glass tube, rose  $12^{\circ}$  higher than the true temperature, which was  $77^{\circ}$ . It should seem then, that the variety in the mounting occasioned this difference; and this effect of the materials, of which the instrument is made, cannot be wholly avoided, as the glass itself, which constitutes the ball of the thermometer, will acquire and contain more or less, in proportion to its thickness and opacity. If a thermometer were perfect, it would reflect all the rays that it receives. More might be added to corroborate this idea, but it would swell this note to an unwarrantable length.

were

were here compared; and at a quarter after nine, beginning my walk, I arrived, not without some fatigue, at the top of the mountain about noon. The view from thence was incredibly beautiful. Every object, that from Geneva was striking, from thence appeared with an additional effect. The mountains seemed higher and nearer; the plain appeared a more perfect level, the small inequalities from this height becoming insensible; and a larger portion of the lake presented itself: behind me an innumerable collection of naked points and precipices, all new objects, that from below are hid by the mountain, afforded fresh and most astonishing ideas of this very singular part of the creation. The clouds however (for it was a little hazy) unfortunately prevented my seeing Mont Blanc and the Glacieres, which were still farther behind. Some of the clouds were below me, and very near; exhibiting to me, at that time, a very singular phenomenon of the thunder grumbling under my feet. I was occupied here between four and five hours with different observations. The barometrical ones I am now going to relate; and I shall at the same time give the computations of them according to Mr. DE LUC's method, or rather according to Dr. HORSLEY's reduction of it to the scales and measures of this country (*vide* Philos. Transf. vol. LXXV.) with this difference, that I have

have reckoned the equation for the expansion of quicksilver =,00323 inch for every degree of FAHRENHEIT'S thermometer in a column of 30 inches, instead of ,00312 which Mr. DE LUC used; the former I had collected from some of my own experiments made at Oxford in the beginning of the year 1773: this difference will not, however, occasion an alteration in the result of any one of my observations of more than five inches, and may therefore be considered as of no account. Of the real value of this correction I shall speak more hereafter.

The barometer was set up on the mountain at one o'clock, and left an hour and a quarter to acquire the temperature of the tent in which it was placed, before the first regular series of observation was taken. The succeeding observations were made at intervals of near an hour each. I have ventured to set down the height of the barometer to ,0001 inch; but this is only the mean from three or four readings off. It seems that the heat of the tent was considerably greater than that of the external air; this, however, can only influence the expansion of the quicksilver, shewn by the attached thermometer, and not the pressure of the atmosphere. Lastly, the true difference in the height of the reservoirs of the two barometers, by comparison with A and C, was found equal 2831.3 feet geometrically.



*Comparison of the first series.*

**Observations at the top of the mountain at c.**

	Barom. N° 2. above at c. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	25.7120	78.0	65.0
Correct for the diff. of the 2 attached therm. 5°.9, }	— 162		
Barometer at the top, ———— below,	25.6958 28.3951	Log. Log.	4098621 4532434
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, }	2.6993	Diff. of Log.	433.813
Correct for 29°.7 of heat,	— —	+	28.728
Correct height in fathom,	— —		462.541 x 6
Height in English feet by the barometer,	—	—	2775.246
Height by the trig. method,	— —	—	2831.3
Difference, or error of the barometer $\frac{108}{10800}$ ,		—	56.1

**Observations below at A.**

	Barom. N° 1. below at A. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.3990	72.1	73.9
Correct for the diff. } of the barometer, }	— 39		65.0 heat at c.
	28.3951		69.4 mean heat of the air.
			39.7 { stand. temp. according to Dr. HORSLEY.
		+	29.7 difference.

A detached thermometer in the tent stood at 72°.

*Comparison of the second Series.*

## Observation at the top of the mount at c.

	Barom. N° 2. above at c. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	27.7025	73.4	64.0
Correct for the Diff. of the two attached therm. }	— 50		
Barometer at the top,	25.6975	Log. 4098908	
— below, —	28.3901	Log. 4531669	
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, — }	2.6926	Diff. of Log. 432.751	{ approx. height in English fathoms.
Correct for 28°.8 of heat,	—	+ 27.787	
Corrected height in fathoms,	—	460.538 × 6	
Height in feet by the barometer	—	2763.228	
— by the trig. method,	—	2831.3	
Difference, or error of the barometer $\frac{240}{100000}$ ,		— 68.1	

## Observation below at A.

	Barom. N° 1. below at A. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.3940	71.6	73.0
Correct for the diff. of barometer, }	— 39		64.0 heat at c.
	28.3901		68.5 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			+ 28.8 difference.

A detached thermometer in the tent stood at 69°.

During these observations the wind was S.W.; the weather hazy, accompanied with a little thunder.

*Com-*

*Comparison of the third series.*

Observations at the top near c.

	Barom. N° 2. above at c. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	25.6900	69.7	62.0
Correct for the diff. of the 2 attached therm. 1°.4, }	+ 38		
Barometer at the top,	25.6938	Log. 4098283	
below, —	28.3896	Log. 4531593	
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, — }	2.6958	Diff. of Log. 433.310	{ Approx. height in fathoms.
Correct for 27°.5 of heat,	—	+ 26.582	
Correct height in fathoms,	—	459.892 × 6	
Height in feet by the barometer,	—	2759.352	
by the trig. method, —	—	2831.3	
Difference, or error of the barometer $\frac{254}{100000}$ ,	—	71.9	

Observations below near to A.

	Barom. N° 1. below at A. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.3935	71.1.	72.5
Correct for the diff. of barometer, }	— 39		62.0 heat at c.
	28.3896		67.2 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			+ 27.5 difference.

A detached thermometer in the tent stood at 65°.

These observations then seem to prove that the barometrical rules were a little defective as to the true ratio between the gravities of air and quicksilver, *viz.* in the value of an inch of quicksilver in the torricellian tube, expressed in inches of the atmosphere with a given temperature. The first comparison gives for this error in defect — 19.8 feet in every 1000 feet; the second, 24.0 feet; and the last, 25.4 feet: the mean of the three is 23.1 feet; and by so much we may conclude that these rules, in greater heights also, will give the difference of elevation too little, *viz.* by  $\frac{1}{43}$  nearly <sup>(m)</sup>. But it will be fair to make the experiment.

(m) Left any suspicion should arise of a disagreement between the actual measures taken by Mr. DE LUC and myself, I may observe, that the mean result of three observations, which I made independently of each other on the height of the Pitton or point c above the lake of Geneva, agree with the mean result of Mr. DE LUC's operation from the levelling and the quadrant, to less than twelve inches; a greater correspondency than which cannot be expected: and this was the true reason why I chose the same spot he had pitched upon. "*Le rocher isolé, qui domine toute la montagne.*" As a further confirmation, I compared his standard steel rod of twelve Paris inches, which his brother obligingly furnished me with, with my brass one, and found twelve inches on Mr. DE LUC's rule

was on my rule, with 71° of heat, — — 12.784 Eng. inches.

Correction for the difference of expansion between }  
brass and steel with 16° of heat, — — } + 07

Length of Mr. DE LUC's French foot with 55°, — 12.7847

True length of the French foot (*vide* Phil. Transf.) 12.7890

Error or difference from the true Paris foot — — ,0043 =  $\frac{1}{2358}$  nearly.

The Mole is a convenient, insulated mountain, situated about eighteen miles east of Geneva, and rising near five thousand feet above the lake, much higher than any body, that I know of, has ever made these experiments at, with the required precision. On this summit I determined to confirm or correct my discovery, and communicated my intentions to Mr. DE SAUSSURE, a very ingenious gentleman of this place, and well skilled in various parts of natural and experimental philosophy, who gave me all the information necessary, and obligingly promised to accompany me, as did also Mr. TREMBLEY, assistant to Mr. MALLET, well known in the astronomical world. This expedition was undertaken in the latter end of August and beginning of September. I shall here beg leave to set the reader down at the bottom of the mountain, and flatter myself he will accompany me to the top. It was about five in the afternoon when we left St. Joire, a wretched little village at the foot of the mountain to the east, and where we had dined in a most miserable *auberge*, preparing to ascend the summit on foot, being seven or eight in company, including guides and servants, who carried my instruments, provisions, &c.; the former consisting of the equatorial, the barometer, different thermometers, electrical balls, an hygrometer, and a dipping-needle; together with another barometer

of Mr. DE LUC's construction, a variation-needle, a level belonging to Mr. DE SAUSSURE, and a tent. Thus accoutered we proceeded up an ascent, not however very steep, for three hours and a half without intermission, the path leading in a spiral kind of direction, very rugged and full of loose pieces of rock that are brought down with the melting snows, passing through romantic woods of fine firs and other trees, interspersed here and there with a thin soil of excellent pasture. Before we arrived at the hut, where we were to sleep (for our intention was to lay upon the mountain that night, in order to have the more time the next morning for our operations) having walked on a little too far before, we lost sight of our guides. We called several times, but were never answered:—the night was now coming on; a kind of fog appeared, with small rain; our situation became somewhat embarrassing. We called again, but were answered by nothing but an echo, the place being a most profound solitude. We began now to consider ourselves as lost. Mr. DE SAUSSURE, though he had been seven or eight times before upon the mountain, found himself in doubt concerning the way; but after a short dilemma thought it best to proceed. We did; and now began to perceive at a distance some little huts or hovels indistinctly: a few more steps assured us we were right, and about nine o'clock

o'clock we had the good luck to find ourselves at the very hovel, where we were to rest that night. I own I now found myself quite contented, though I did not at all know what kind of place I was going to enter. It proved to be a little hut made of boards, consisting of one apartment only, eighteen or twenty feet square, and about twelve high in the center, without any windows or chimney for the smoke, except what was made by the holes in the roof, and the interstices between the boards at the sides, which were rudely put together, scarce closer than park-palings, affording an equal entrance to the wind, rain, and snow; for as these hovels are inhabited only for about four months in the summer, they are constructed without the least mortar or cement in the world; an humiliating witness this, how simple the architecture which nature and necessity suggest. On entering we found a comfortable fire, and the little *cabane* inhabited by a couple of Alpine shepherdesses and their two cows, on whose whey and some very coarse bread they wholly subsisted, not discontented but even proud of their lot; and who, out of a singular species of contempt, call the inhabitants of the plain *mange-rotis*, that is, eaters of roast-meat. Their language too was different; not French nor Italian, but partaking something of both; or, as I have been since informed, a corruption of the ancient Celtic.

A few minutes after our arrival our guides rejoined us: it was now night, and in this rather too artless habitation we were obliged to lay in a little loft over the cows, our beds some leaves and clean hay, and my bolster my port-manteau<sup>(n)</sup>. I had had the caution to bring some sheets with me, and, being a little tired with my walking, slept five hours pretty soundly, though much starved, having no other curtains than what this wooden canopy afforded, through which the stars shone most brilliantly. Between four and five we arose; found the heavens beautifully serene, and, having eaten some of our provisions, left this habitation, which might be situated about two-thirds of the way up the mountain; and beginning our march about half after five reached the summit a quarter before seven; but not without a good deal of climbing, and sometimes up an ascent of near  $40^{\circ}$  for several hundred feet. One of my servants, before he got half way, found his head turn round, and himself so giddy, at the height and precipices (a frequent effect in these sort of places) that he was obliged to return to the hut. In the ascent I saw the Sun rising behind one of the neigh-

(n) ————— *Frigida parvas  
Præberet spelunca domos, ignemque, laremque,  
Et pecus, et dominos communi clauderet umbrâ;  
Sylvestrem montana torum cum sterneret uxor  
Fronibus et calmo.* JUV. Sat. vi.



bouring alps with a most beautiful effect, and the shadow of the mountain we were then upon extended fifteen or twenty miles west. We had now reached the summit; and there my curiosity finished in astonishment. I perceived myself elevated 6000 feet in the atmosphere, and standing as it were on a knife-edge, for such is the figure of the ridge or top of this mountain; length without breadth, or the least appearance of a plain, as I had expected to find. Before me an immediate precipice, *à pic*, of above 1000 feet, and behind me the very steep ascent I had just now mounted. I was imprudently the first of the company: the surprize was perfect horror, and two steps further had sent me headlong from the rock.

On this spot, with some difficulty, we fixed the instruments, and commenced our operations, after some time spent in admiration at the prospect, and familiarizing myself to the scene. Before me, at some distance, was spread the plain in which lay Geneva and the lake; behind it rose the Dole, and the long chain of Mont Jura as far as the fort La Cluse, which we entirely commanded, as well as some of the country beyond it. A little to the left, and much nearer, lay Mont Saleve, which from this height appeared an inconsiderable hill: to the right and left nothing but immense mountains, and pointed rocks of every possible shape, and forming tremendous precipices. In the

vale beneath, several little hamlets, and the most beautiful pasturages, with the river Arve winding and softening the scene; from whence arose a thick evaporation, collecting itself into clouds, which on the lake, that was quite covered with them, had the appearance of a sea of cotton, the Sun-beams playing in the upper surface of them with those tints that are seen in a fine evening. To the south-west appeared the lake of Annecy; behind us, taking up one-fifth of our horizon, lay the Glacieres, and amongst them, towering above all the rest, stood Mont Blanc. The circumference of the horizon might be about 200 English miles; and, though not one of the most extensive, yet certainly one of the most varied in the world. From this spot the clouds had a striking appearance to an inhabitant of the plain; very few of them at above one-fifth of the height that we were now at; not governed by the wind, but moving in every possible direction; some of them seemed creeping along the ground, whilst others were rising perpendicularly between the hills. And I may here remark, that from Geneva I have observed the clouds were generally three days in the week below the summit of Mont Saleve; so that the ordinary region of these vapours seems to be at that height in the atmosphere, where the barometer would stand at about 26 inches in this climate.

While at the top of the Mole, I was very sensible of the cold, there being a brisk wind, which, though south, came over the mountains of ice, and was very keen; inasmuch that, about two hours after I had been there, I nearly lost the use of my fingers, and found my lips much affected and parched from the transition, having been a good deal heated in ascending with two waistcoats and a great coat on. The thermometer, however, when I first mounted, stood no lower than  $48^{\circ}$ . I must here ask pardon for this long digression, which I have ventured to transcribe from my journal written upon the spot.

To return then to the observations. After what has been said respecting those on Mont Saleve, it will suffice here to mention, that by repeated measurements I determined the horizontal length of the base 1, 2 (see the chart) to be = 1250 ft. 3.9 inch; the  $\angle$  at 1 =  $95^{\circ} 37' 28''$ ;  $\angle$  at 2 =  $77^{\circ} 48' 53''$ ; and the  $\angle$  at 3 =  $6^{\circ} 33' 49''$ . The mean corrected angle of elevation of 3 from 1 =  $21^{\circ} 29' 34''$ ; ditto of 3 from 2 =  $21^{\circ} 3' 41''$ ; and lastly, the elevation of 2 from 1 =  $0^{\circ} 47' 24''$ .

Feet.

These observations give for the length of the side 1, 3,	—	10691.9
— — — — — 2, 3,	—	10886.7
Height of 3 above 1,	—	4212.8.
— 3 above 2,	—	4194.8
— 2 above 1,	—	17.2
And consequently, 3 above 1 deduced from the observation at 2,	—	4212.0
And lastly, the mean height of 3 above 1 from the determination at each end of the base,	— — —	4212.4

The difference in height, however, between the two barometers was only 4211.3 feet.

Here follow the barometrical observations<sup>(e)</sup>, and their reduction.

(e) Made between the hours of eight and twelve, in the open air and not in the tent, which could not be pitched on account of the smallness of the plain at the summit; a brisk south wind, but fair. The barometer was screened by an umbrella.

*Comparison of the first series on the Mole.*

Observation at the top at 3.

	Barom. N° 2. above at c. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	24.1437	57.0	54.8
Correct for the Diff. of the two attached therm. 3°.4, }	+ 88		
Barometer at the top, — below, —	24.1525 28.1253	Log. 3829621 Log. 4490971	
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, — }	3.9728	Diff. of Log. 661.350	{ approx. height in fathoms.
Correct for 18°.6 of heat,	—	—	+ 27.431
Corrected height in fathoms,	—	—	688.781 × 6
Height in feet by the barometer — by the geometrical measurement,	—	—	4132.686 4211.3
Difference, or error of the barometer,	—	—	78.6 = $\frac{187}{1000}$

Observation below at 1.

	Barom. N° 1. below at 1. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.1295	60.4	61.9
Correct for the diff. } of barometer, }	— 42		54.8 heat at 3.
	28.1253		58.3 mean heat. 39.7 standard temperature.
			+ 18.6 difference.

*Comparison of the second Series.*

## Observation at the top at 3.

	Barom. N° 2. above at 3. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	24.1420	56.9	56.0
Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. 3°.5, }	+ 91		
	<hr/> 24.1511	Log. 3829369	
	28.1258	Log. 4491049	
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, — }	3.9747	Diff. of Log. 661.680	{ approx. height in fathoms.
Correct for 19°.2 of heat, — —		+ 28.330	
Correct height in fathoms, — —		<hr/> 690.010	
		x 6	
Height in feet by the barometer, —		<hr/> 4140.06	
— by the geom. method, —		<hr/> 4211.3	
Difference, or error of the barometer,		<hr/> — 71.2 = $\frac{169}{10000}$ .	

## Observation below at 1.

	Barom. N° 1. below at 1. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.1300	60.4	61.8
Correct for the diff. of barometer, }	— 42		56.0 heat at 3.
	<hr/> 28.1258		<hr/> 58.9 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			<hr/> — 19.2 difference.

Comparison of the third Series.

Observation at the top at 3.

	Barom. N° 2. above at 3. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	24.1670	56.0	56.0
Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. 4°9. }	+ 127		57.5 (p)
	<hr/> 24.1797	Log. 3834509	
	28.1278	Log. 4491358	
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, }	3.9481	Diff. of Log. 656.849	{ Approx. height in fathoms.
Correct for 19°8 of heat,	— —	+ 29.0	
Correct height in fathoms,	— —	685.849 × 6	
Height in feet by the barometer,	—	4115.094	
by the geom. method,	—	4211.5	
Difference, or error of the barometer,		— 95.2 = $\frac{1335}{1000}$ .	

Observation below at 1.

	Barom. N° 2. below at 2. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.1320	60.9	63.0
Correct for the diff. of the barometer, }	— 42		56.0 heat at 3.
	<hr/> 28.1278		59.5 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			<hr/> 19.8 difference.

(p) In this column for the detached thermometer at the top of the mountain, in this and the following observations, are inserted two numbers, the upper one expressing the heat in the shade; and the lower one, with this mark,  $\odot$ , placed, the heat in the Sun. The computation, however, is made from the former; this may serve to show the difference.

*Comparison of the fourth series.*

## Observation at the top at 3.

	Barom. N <sup>o</sup> 2. above at 3. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	24.1780	57.2	56.0
Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. 4°6, }	+ 119		○ 57.5
	<hr/> 24.1899	Log. 3836341	
	28.1318	Log. 4491976	
Difference, or fall of the quicksilver, }	3.9419	Diff. of Log. 655.635	{ approx. height in fathoms.
Correct for 20°.3 of heat,	—	—	+ 29 678
Correct height in fathoms,	—	—	<hr/> 685.313 x 6
Height in feet by the barometer,	—	—	<hr/> 4111.878
by the geom. method,	—	—	<hr/> 4211.3
Difference, or error of the barometer,			<hr/> — 99.4 = $\frac{235}{10000}$ .

## Observation below at 1.

	Barom. N <sup>o</sup> 1. below at 1. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.1360	61.8	63.9
Correct for the diff. } of the barometer, }	42		56.0 heat at 3.
	<hr/> 28.1318		60.0 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			<hr/> + 20.3 difference.



*Comparison of the fifth series.*

Observations at the top at 3.

	Barom. N <sup>o</sup> 2. above at 3. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	24.1840	59.6	57.0
Correct for the diff. of the 2 attached therm. 2°.8, }	+ 73		0 59.3
	<hr/> 24.1913	Log.	3836592
	28.1308	Log.	4491820
Difference, or fall of the quickfilver, }	3.9395	Diff. of Log.	655.228
Correct for 20°.8 of heat,	—	—	+ 30.391
Correct height in fathom,	—	—	<hr/> 686.619
			× 6
Height in feet by the barometer,	—	—	<hr/> 4113.714
— by the geom. method,	—	—	<hr/> 4211.3
Difference, or error of the barometer,			<hr/> — 97.6 = $\frac{221}{10000}$ .

Observations below at 1.

	Barom. N <sup>o</sup> 1. below at 1. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.1350	62.4	64.0
Correct for the diff. of the barometer, }	— 42		57.0 heat at 3.
	<hr/> 28.1308		60.3 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			<hr/> + 20.8 difference.

*Comparison of the sixth series.*

## Observation at the top at 3.

	Barom. N <sup>o</sup> 2. above at 3. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	24.1900	61.0	57.0
Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. 1°6, }	+ 41		60.0
	<hr/> 24.1941	Log. 3837095	
	28.1268	Log. 4491204	
Difference, or fall of the quickfilter, }	3.9327	Diff. of Log. 654.157	{ approx. height in fathoms.
Correction for 20°6 of heat,	—	—	+ 30.048
Correct height in fathoms,	—	—	<hr/> 684.157 x 6
Height in feet by the barometer,	—	—	<hr/> 4104.942
by the geom. method	—	—	<hr/> 4211.3
Difference, or error of the barometer,		—	<hr/> 106.4 = $\frac{222}{10000}$

## Observation below at 1.

	Barom. N <sup>o</sup> 1. below at 1. In. Pts.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
	28.1310	62.6	63.6
Correct for the diff. of the barometer, }	— 42		57.0 heat at 3.
	<hr/> 28.1268		60.3 mean heat.
			39.7 standard temperature.
			<hr/> 20.6 difference.

To collect these last experiments in one point of view.

				Feet.
The 1st series gives for the error on every 1000 ft.				18.7
2d,	—	—	—	16.9
3d,	—	—	—	22.8
4th,	—	—	—	23.5
5th,	—	—	—	23.1
6th,	—	—	—	25.2
The mean error,				<hr/> 21.7 <hr/>

which agrees within two feet in a thousand with the determination on Mont Saleve. This result then justifies my conclusion (in p. 556.) and proves that either the proportional gravity of air and quicksilver is now different from what it was, when M. DE LUC made his experiments, *viz.* from 1756 to 1760; or that his or my observations are defective. That my trigonometrical measurements were sufficiently exact, *viz.* to within two or three feet, I think I have already shewn; and even that his were also. Within what limits my barometrical errors are to be found is not difficult to determine from what has been before premised. That the scale of Mr. DE LUC's barometer was less accurate than mine, is, I think, without a doubt; and indeed he never attempted a division less than  $\frac{1}{16}$ th of a French line, or about  $\frac{5}{1000}$

of an inch English: and yet when I consider the number of his observations, and the unexampled diligence and care with which he made them, I am obliged to attribute the difference of our results to some other cause than that of inaccuracy. If then future experience should demonstrate, that the density of the atmosphere with a given heat is invariable, or nearly so; while the pressure of a whole column of it continues the same, we may perhaps search for the cause of our disagreement from hence, *viz.* the barometers of Mr. DE LUC were not sufficiently near each other in an horizontal direction: mine were separated from two to three miles; and his, I believe, at double or triple that distance. It may be suspected, I am well aware, that the syphon construction of Mr. DE LUC's barometer might occasion this difference: let us see whether this be the case. Mr. DE SAUSSURE (whose instrument was of Mr. DE LUC's construction, and made, as I understood, under his inspection) observed at the top of the Mole, or at least nearly on the same level with my barometer, as follows:

And

	Barometer In. L. 16ths.	Therm. attached. DE LUC's scale.	Therm. det. REAL's scale.
	22 8 0	+1°+	+10°—
And in English measure and FAHREN- HEIT's scale, — —	24.1570	56	54.2
Mr. DE SAUSSURE's barometer ordinarily stands higher than mine N <sup>o</sup> 2. by (1),	— .0117		
Correct for the diff. of our attached therm. 1°,	+ 26		
Mr. DE SAUSSURE's barometer corrected,	24.1479		
My barometer N <sup>o</sup> 2. see the first series,	24 1437—	57	54.8:
Difference, — —	+ .0042	wholly inconsiderable.	

Our barometers may therefore be said to have agreed exactly.

Mr. DE SAUSSURE made a second comparison just before we left the top of the mountain, which proved as follows.

	Barometer In. L. 16ths.	Therm. attached. DE LUC's scale.	Therm. detached.
	22 8 8	+4°	+11 $\frac{2}{3}$ °
Or reduced to English measure and scale,	24.2014	61.7	57.9
Mr. DE SAUSSURE's barometer stands higher than mine N <sup>o</sup> 2. —	— .0117		
Corr. for the diff. of our attached therm. 0°.7,	— .0018.		
Mr. DE SAUSSURE's barometer corrected,	24.1879		
My barometer N <sup>o</sup> 2. see the sixth series,	24.1900	61.0	57
Difference, — —	—0.0021		

So that, in the first comparison, his barometer at the top of the Mole stood higher than mine by +.004 inch; and in the last, lower by —.002; the mean is higher by

(q) This we found by comparisons at the bottom of the mountain.

+ .001

+ ,001, equal to about 10 inches in deducing the height of the mountain, a quantity wholly to be neglected. Finally, the mean of Mr. DE SAUSSURE's observations gives the defect of Mr. DE LUC's rules 21.9 in a thousand. The construction of the barometer had therefore no influence on this difference. But further, while Mr. DE SAUSSURE observed the height of the barometer on the Mole, Mr. DE LUC, the brother made a corresponding observation with a similar instrument at Geneva. I shall relate this observation, computed after Mr. DE LUC's manner.

In. L. 16ths.				
Mr. DE SAUSSURE, at 4 feet below the fummit of the Mole, —	} 22 8 0			
Mr. DE SAUSSURE's barom. stands higher than Mr. DE LUC's ordinarily by,	} + 1 $\frac{1}{2}$			
Thermometer attached + 1°, —	} 0 $\frac{3}{4}$			
Correct height on the Mole,	22 8 0 $\frac{3}{4}$	16ths of a line. Log.		
			Heat of the air.	
			REAUM. Therm.	DE LUC's Therm.
			+ 10	— 15 $\frac{2}{3}$
Mr. DE LUC, 78 feet above the lake, —	} 27 0 0			
Therm. attached + 6°, —	} — 6			
	26 11 10	= 5178	7141620	+ 15 — 4
Difference of the Log.	—	—	754.033	Sum — 19 $\frac{2}{3}$
$19^{\circ}\frac{2}{3} \times \frac{754.033}{1000} =$ the correction for the temperature,				
			— 14.854	
Correct height in French toises,	—		739.179	
			× 6	
Height in French feet,	—	—	4435.074	
Mr. DE LUC's barometer above the lake of Geneva,			+ 78.	
Mr. DE SAUSSURE's barometer below the fummit of the Mole, — — —	} + 4.			
And consequently, the fummit of the Mole above the lake, in French feet, — — —	} 4517.			
Which reduced to English feet is, — — —	} 4814.			
But, by a mean of my trigonometrical operations, this height is ( <i>vide</i> chart) — — —	} 4883.			
Difference, or error of the barometrical rules,	— 69.		= $\frac{14}{1000}$ .	

This last observation serves at least to shew, that the error I am contending for is on the defective side, though it gives the quantity of it somewhat less, but by no means deserves that confidence which the other comparisons do; for, besides that this single observation may be concluded

less.

less decisive, the trigonometrical measurement is also less accurate from the distance; and, lastly, to suppose the state of the atmosphere precisely the same with respect to weight in two places twenty miles asunder, is, I am afraid, a *postulatum* too hazardous to grant. I therefore say, that all these observations confirm the same truth, that the atmosphere is lighter than Mr. DE LUC presumed it. What had already been done may seem sufficient for the establishment of this fact; for I have always held, that a few observations, well made and faithfully related, do more in the interpretation of nature, than a multitude of crude, careless, and immethodical experiments. But I have not done: I wished to put this matter out of all doubt, and accordingly undertook another expedition to the summit of Mont Saleve, on the 18th of September, and in a colder temperature: the experiments then made, with their results, were as follows:

The difference of actual height by the two barometers was 2828.9 feet, the barometer N° 1. standing higher than N° 2. by +,0038 inch, when compared at the bottom of the mountain.



*Comparison of the first series.*

Observation at the top of the mountain.		Observation at the bottom.
--	--	----------------------------

Barom. N° 2. at the top. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.		Barom. N° 1. below. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
25.6533	58.0	56.2		28.4040	58.1	58.8
					Feet.	

This gives for the height barometrically, 2755.6

But the true height was, ————— 2828.9

Difference, or error of the barometers,           -73.3 =  $\frac{259}{10000}$           

*Comparison of the second series.*

Observation at the top of the mountain.		Observation at the bottom.
--	--	----------------------------

Barom. N° 2. at the top. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.		Barom. N° 1. below. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
25.6550	56.2	57.0		28.4040	58.5	60.8
					Feet.	

This gives for the height barometrically, 2754.9

But the true height was, ————— 2828.9

Difference, or error of the barometers,           -74.0 =  $\frac{262}{10000}$

*Comparison of the third series.*

Observation at the top of the mountain.		Observation at the bottom.
--	--	----------------------------

Barom. N° 2. at the top. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.		Barom. N° 1. below. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
25.6620	56.2	57.2		28.4040	59.3	62.0
					Feet.	

This gives for the height barometrically, 2748.9

The height by the trigon. method was, 2828.9

Difference, or error of the barometers,  $-80.0 = -\frac{282}{10000}$

*Comparison of the fourth series.*

Observation at the top of the mountain.		Observation below.
--	--	--------------------

Barom. N° 2. at the top. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.		Barom. N° 1. below. In.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
25.6600	56.4	57.4		28.4040	59.3	62.2
					Feet.	

This gives for the height barometrically, 2752.8

But the true height was, — 2828.9

Difference, or error of the barometers,  $-76.1 = -\frac{269}{10000}$

In these comparisons I have not inserted the whole of the computation, as that may easily be made by any person at leisure. Finally, the mean of these four last series

*in order to ascertain the height of Mountains.* 555

series gives for the error on 1000 feet, 26.8. I think I have now shewn, that the error actually exists; it remains that we determine precisely the quantity of it. For this purpose it will be proper to collect all the preceding observations in one point of view.

Table of the result of all the barometrical experiments.

Place of observation		True height trigonometrically.	Height by the barometers.	Mean heat.	Error in feet.	Error in 1000 feet.	Mean error in 1000 feet.
Mont Saleve,	{ 1	2831.3	2775.2	69.4	— 56.1	—19.8	—23.1
	{ 2	—	2763.2	68.5	— 68.1	—24.0	
	{ 3	—	2759.4	67.2	— 71.9	—25.4	
At the Mole,	{ 1	4211.3	4132.7	58.3	— 78.6	—18.6	—21.7
	{ 2	—	4140.1	58.9	— 71.2	—16.9	
	{ 3	—	4115.1	59.5	— 96.2	—22.8	
	{ 4	—	4111.9	60.0	— 99.4	—23.5	
	{ 5	—	4113.7	60.5	— 97.6	—23.1	
	{ 6	—	4104.9	60.3	—106.1	—25.2	
Mont Saleve,	{ 1	2828.9	2755.6	57.5	— 73.3	—25.9	—26.8
	{ 2	—	2754.9	58.9	— 74.0	—26.2	
	{ 3	—	2748.9	59.6	— 80.0	—28.2	
	{ 4	—	2752.8	59.8	— 76.1	—26.9	
Mean of all, 23.6, and the temperature 61°.4.							

The Mole, from two observations of Mr. DE SAUSSURE,	{	4211.3	—	—	— 92.	—21.8	{	
The same by Mr. DE SAUSSURE, and Mr. DE LUC, at Geneva,		4883.	4814.	—	— 69.	—14.		
According to Mr. DE LUC's own observations, see <i>Recherches sur l'Atmosphere</i> ,	{	the Mole,	4882.8	4860.	—	— 22.8		— 4.7
		the Dole,	4292.7	4210.	—	— 82.7		—19.5
		the Buet,	8893.6	8770.	—	—123.7		—13.9
		M <sup>r</sup> Blanc,	14432.5	14093.	—	—339.5	—23.5	

The titles of the columns are sufficiently clear to make a farther explanation of this table unnecessary; and it appears, I think incontestably, upon taking a mean of my thirteen observations (and I shall here consider only my own) on Mont Saleve and the Mole, that this error is about  $23\frac{1}{2}$  feet on every thousand; that is, the rules of Mr. DE LUC give the height by so much too little. At the bottom of the foregoing table I have subjoined six other comparisons, some of them from Mr. DE LUC's own observations, as recorded in his valuable work; which however I must add, are certainly of less authority in this inquiry, as they were made with barometers a great way distant from each other, *viz.* near thirty miles: besides which, the geometrical heights are, for the same reason, not so accurately ascertained. I have, however, ventured to make what use I could of them, *viz.* to shew that these two give a result on the same side, though not exactly the same; and to urge the necessity of a certain vicinity in those observations from whence a theory is to be deduced.

Shall I be permitted to adduce another proof, in confirmation of what has been advanced? When I first took up the consideration of measuring altitudes in the atmosphere with the barometer, and had heard only of Mr. DE LUC's labours, it occurred to me, that there was a

much more simple method of arriving at this theory, than either he or I have since pursued. It was this; to determine hydrostatically the specific gravities of air<sup>(r)</sup> and quicksilver, with a given temperature and pressure; the increase of volume, or change of gravity, with a given increase of heat being supposed to be known by the experiments of BOERHAAVE<sup>(s)</sup> and HAWKESBEE<sup>(t)</sup>, which might be farther examined by similar ones; and presuming that the geometrical ratio in the air's density, as you advance upwards from the earth's surface, had been sufficiently demonstrated<sup>(u)</sup>. For the proportional gravity of quicksilver to air will express inversely the length of two equiponderant columns of these fluids, that is, when the columns are taken infinitely small<sup>(x)</sup>. With these

(r) It may seem particular that I should propose an experiment supposed to be very well known, and which hardly any elementary treatise on chemistry or experimental philosophy will not furnish us with an example of; the weight of a given quantity of air. BOYLE, HALLEY, HAWKESBEE, HALES, each of them have tried it, and many others since their time: but the misfortune is, all these experiments have been but gross approximations, without due attention to the heat; and yet the determination of HAWKESBEE seems to have been followed by one-half of Europe in Pneumatical researches. Indeed I only know of one experiment that has the least title to precision, and that is Mr. CAVENDISH's, briefly related in the LVith volume of the Philosophical Transactions.

(s) *Elementa Chimiæ.*

(t) *Physico-mechanical Experiments.*

(u) COTES's *Hydrostat. Lectures, et alibi.*

(x) I am not sorry to anticipate the reader's remark here, that this observation is not new; since I find that I have been treading the same steps with

Mr.

these ideas I made the following experiment. I caused a glass vessel to be blown something like a Florence flask, or rather larger; to the neck of this was adapted a brass cap with a valve opening outwards, and made to screw on or off, together with a male screw, by which it was fixed to an excellent pump of Mr. NAIRNE's construction, and exhausted of its air, or at least rarified to a known degree: the vessel was then carefully weighed with a sensible balance, and again after the air was re-admitted; the difference gave the weight of the air that had been exhausted. After having repeated this two or three times, the vessel was exactly filled with water as far as the valve, which had been the term of capacity for the air; this was done by screwing on the cap till the superfluous water oozed all out, and upon inverting the vessel there appeared not the least sign or bubble of air; I therefore concluded, that the volume of water was precisely the same as had been the volume of air, a circumstance that should be accurately attended to. It was then carefully weighed, and compared with its weight when full and deprived of its air. It will readily be seen, that I had then the specific gravity of the two fluids, upon supposition that the figure of the glass had not altered

Mr. BOYLE and Dr. HALLEY, who both made use of this method; the one with a view to determine the limits of the atmosphere; and the other the height of Snowden.

by

by preffure during the experiment; and this effect may be prefumed to have been the moft fenfible, when the veffel was filled with water, the preffure at that time being from within. To affure myfelf of this, I let in a fmall quantity of air, which formed a bubble of about one-third of an inch in diameter, and upon immerging the glafs in another veffel of water, whereby the preffure within was counterpoifed by a preffure without, the bubble feemed to contract itfelf by a quantity, as I found afterwards, equal to about two grains in weight, or  $\frac{1}{8000}$  of the whole contents. I therefore concluded, that this correction was hardly worth taking notice of, and ftill lefs the effect from external preffure when the glafs was exhausted. At every operation the height of the barometer and thermometer (placed clofe to the veffel when the air was weighed) was noted down, together with the height of the pump-gage, which, compared with the barometer in the room, fhewed the quantity exhausted. The refult of the experiment was as follows, the barometer in the room ftanding at 29.27 inches, and the heat of the room 53°.

Feet.

The bottle empty or exhausted till the gage stood at 29.15 inches } weighed (determined from four different trials, and the balance } turning with $1\frac{1}{2}$ of a grain) — — —	2657.40
Increase of weight when filled with air, from four trials certain } to $\frac{1}{16}$ of a grain — — —	+ 16.13
Bottle filled with water, whose heat was $51^{\circ}$ , — — —	16220.00
Weight of the water, exclusive of the bottle, — — —	13562.60

But the bottle was exhausted only in the proportion of 29.15 inches to 29.27 inches; therefore if a perfect *vacuum* could have been made, the difference of weight would have been 16.22 grains instead of 16.13 grains. Again, the water was colder than the air by  $2^{\circ}$ ; the one being  $53^{\circ}$ , and the other only  $51^{\circ}$ : now water, from former experiments, I find to expand about  $\frac{3}{10000}$  with  $2^{\circ}$  of heat; therefore, if the water had been of the same temperature with the air that was examined, the weight of an equal volume would have been only 13558.5 grains; and lastly, 13358.5 divided by 16.22 gives 836<sup>(y)</sup>, and by so much is water heavier than air in these circumstances.

(y) HAWKESBEE's experiments made the air 850 lighter than water, the barometer being at 29 7; and Dr. HALLEY supposed it about 800. Mr. CAVENDISH, in weighing 50 grains of air, when the barometer was at  $29\frac{3}{4}$ , and the thermometer at  $50^{\circ}$ , concluded the specific gravity of air to be about 800 also. Now my experiment, reduced to the same circumstances with his, would give 817 for this gravity, no great difference in an affair of such delicacy.

By



By former experiments I find the specific gravity of the quick-	
silver of my barometers, compared with rain-water in 68°	13.606 to 1
of heat, as, — — — — —	
And 68°—53°=15°, correct therefore for 15° of expansion of	+ .018
quickfilver, — — — — —	
Correct for 15° of expansion of air, — — — — —	— .031
	<hr/>
True specific gravity of quickfilver, with 53° of heat,	13.594
Which multiplied by the specific gravity of air, —	× 836
	<hr/>
Gives for the comparative gravity of quickfilver and air, when	
the barometer is at 29.27, and the thermometer 53°, —	11364.6
	<hr/>

	Feet.
And lastly, $\frac{1}{10}$ th of an inch of quickfilver, when the barometer stands at	
29.27 inches ( <i>viz.</i> from 29.22 inches to 29.32 inches) with the tem-	94.7
perature 53°, is equal to a column of the atmosphere of, —	
This quantity, according to my barometrical observations, is, —	93.83
<hr/> to Mr. DE LUC's rules, — —	<hr/> 91.66

We see here then that the statical experiment agrees with the result of my barometrical ones to within about 11 inches in 100 feet, and I am not sure that it is not still capable of much farther precision; and though perhaps alone it might carry with it, to some persons, a less conclusive testimony, who reluctantly reason from the little to the great, yet, in conjunction with what has been before shewn, I think it has considerable weight; and I am the less inclined to reject such an indirect method of proof, as I have the great authorities of HALLEY and NEWTON on my side<sup>(z)</sup>.

I have

(z) "Ce qu'il y a d'essentiel à observer ici," says Mr. DE LUC, "et vraiment digne de remarque, c'est que par la seule connoissance des pesanteurs spécifiques de l'air et du mercure, HALLEY est parvenu à une règle très  
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I have thus endeavoured to shew then that the error of the theory is  $-\frac{236}{10000}$  when the temperature of the air is  $61^{\circ}.4$  (see the table of the result of the observations). It remains therefore, finally, that we deduce a rule, the error of which shall be nothing, *viz.* to find the temperature wherein the difference of the logarithms of the heights of the barometer, taken to four places of figures, will give the true difference of elevation in English fathoms. Previous to this investigation, with which I intend to conclude this paper, it will be necessary to remark, that by repeated experiments with the barometer, I find a small difference in the equation for the expansion of air by a change of temperature, and even in that of quicksilver from the same cause, from what Mr. DE LUC's observations have given it<sup>(a)</sup>. I shall

“ *approchante de celle, qu'un grand nombre d'observations du baromètre dans*  
 “ *les Cordelières ont dicté depuis à M. BOUGUER: cependant malgré l'appui*  
 “ *que ces expériences se prêtent reciproquement, on verra qu'elles étoient encore*  
 “ *bien éloignées de fournir une règle générale.*” *Récherches sur l'Atmosphère,*  
*sect. 267.*

(a) He indeed made his experiments on the atmosphere itself with the barometer, in order to determine the variations of its density; but since it appears that the absolute density of this fluid is different from what he supposed it, it is no bold conjecture to presume that the degree of its variation should be different also; and to ascertain this point, I have preferred the instrument above-mentioned to the method used by Mr. DE LUC, how direct soever his may seem; for in determining minute quantities or equations, we must not embarrass ourselves with the compound effect of too many causes at a time.

not here trouble the reader with the experiments at large, too simple in themselves to deserve such a detail, unless a future occasion should render that necessary, as the methods here used may be met with amongst HAWKESBEE'S or Mr. BOYLE'S experiments; and content myself with relating only the result of the different trials.

1000 parts of air of the temperature of freezing and pressure of  $30\frac{1}{2}$  inches, increased in volume by an addition of 1 degree of heat on FAHRENHEIT'S thermometer as follows:

Observations.	Number of degrees the air was heated.	Expansion for 1° in 1000ths of the whole.	
With the first manometer,	1 14.6	2.30	Mean from the first manometer 2.44.
	2 32.2	2.43	
	3 40.3	2.48	
	4 46.6	2.45	
	5 49.7	2.48	
	6 51.1	2.51	
	7 23.7	2.36	
	8 13.1	2.24	
With another manometer,	9 22.0	2.38	Mean from the second manometer 2.42
	10 28.0	2.50	
	11 21.5	2.34	
	12 30.1	2.44	
	13 22.6	2.44	

The mean of these two sorts of observations, made with different instruments, is 2.43, *viz.* 1000 parts of the air at freezing become by expansion from 1° of heat

Pts.                      Pts.

equal 1002.43 or 1002.385 with the standard temperature 39°.7. Mr. DE LUC's experiments reduced give

Pts.

this quantity equal 1002.23<sup>(b)</sup> (see Transf.). It may be imagined, that I should have had a more accurate conclusion by making these observations in greater differences of temperature than what is shewn in the second column of the above table; but it did not appear so to me. On the other hand, I found that it was absolutely necessary that the same heat should be kept up for some hours together, in order that I might be sure that the air within the instrument, the glass tube that contained it, and the air without it, all had acquired the same

(b) It has generally been supposed, that air expands  $\frac{1}{480}$  with each degree of the thermometer, commencing from the mean temperature 55°; and, in consequence of this, astronomers have computed tables for correcting their mean refractions; but, upon reducing the result of my observations to the temperature 55°, we shall have the correction of the refraction for 1° =  $\frac{103333}{103333}$  or  $\frac{1}{431}$ . Now according to Mr. DE LUC this equation is  $\frac{103333}{103333} = \frac{1}{431}$ , which would produce a difference of about 4" in the corrected refraction, upon an altitude of 3°, with the temperature 35°. If my numbers may be supposed to deserve equal confidence, the error of the tables in common use, in the above circumstances, would amount to only half that quantity, and therefore probably will be thought scarce worth correcting. I have mentioned this in order to obviate the conclusions that have been drawn by some persons from Mr. DE LUC's theory.

uniform

uniform temperature, which in my room I found not very easy to effect in heats greater than  $70^{\circ}$  or  $80^{\circ}$ . I have therefore preferred repeating the experiment with small differences of heat; but such, however, as will include almost all the temperatures in which barometrical observations are likely to be made, *viz.* from  $32^{\circ}$  to  $83^{\circ}$ .

It has been suspected, in consequence of some experiments made by a very ingenious member of this Society, that air does not expand uniformly with quicksilver; or that the degrees of heat shewn by a quicksilver-thermometer would be expressed on a manometer, or air-thermometer, by unequal spaces in a certain geometrical ratio. I do not deny this proposition; but I have also very little reason to assent to it, if I may trust my own experiments, which certainly evince that this ratio, if not truly arithmetical, is so nearly so as to occasion no sensible error in the measuring of heights with the barometer; and that is all I contend for. The small differences that are seen in the above table of this expansion, deduced from a mean of  $14^{\circ}$  or of  $40^{\circ}$ , I would attribute rather to the errors of observation than to any actual irregularity in nature. If, however, this progression be insisted upon, it should seem, that the degree of the air's expansion increases with an increase of heat; and that the difference of volume or density from  $1^{\circ}$  of heat,

heat, any where within the limits above-mentioned, would be about one part in five thousand from what I take it at a mean. I should not have insisted so long on this circumstance, but in respect to the known accuracy of the author of this hypothesis. Neither do I find any reason to believe, that the expansion of air varies with its density. I have tried air whose density or pressure was equal to  $23\frac{3}{4}$  inches, and also to forty inches; but the dilatation, with equal volumes and equal degrees of heat, was very nearly the same in both cases. I might add a great deal more on these manometrical experiments, but I am afraid it would be more tedious than useful. I proceed therefore to the expansion of quicksilver.

This experiment was made with a tube, something like a thermometer, but considerably larger than the ordinary size, and open at one end; it was filled with quicksilver to a certain height, and then exposed to the temperatures of freezing and boiling repeatedly, the barometer being at 30 inches: the difference of the volume in each instance was determined afterwards by accurately weighing the contents. I thus found, that if the quicksilver at freezing be supposed to be divided into 13119 parts, the increase of volume by a heat of boiling water became equal to 208 of these parts =  $\frac{10}{637}$ , and  $\frac{10}{637} \times \frac{1}{180} = \frac{1}{11466}$ ; and such would be the expansion for

each degree of the thermometer, commencing from the freezing point, = 0,00262 inch on a column of 30 inches of the barometer, if the glass had suffered no expansion during the experiment. This, however, has been found to be with 180° of heat =  $\frac{1}{400}$  in solidity (*viz.* the cube of its longitudinal expansion) and  $\frac{1}{400} \times \frac{1}{180} = \frac{1}{72000} = 0,00042$  inch, for the effect of the expansion of the glass for 1° upon a column of 30 inches; this added to the quantity before found, which was only the excess of the greater expansion above the less, gives for the true equation for each degree 0,00304 inch when the barometer stands at 30 inches<sup>(c)</sup>. Mr. DE LUC's correction in this case was 0,00312; a difference so small that I shall take no notice of it as to its influence upon our observations. It may deserve a remark here, that this equation rigorously taken is variable according to the height of the thermometer; for 1°, which at

(c) It has been suspected, and I believe will appear from very good observations, which however I never made myself, that the expansion of quicksilver in the barometer is not directly as the heat shewn by the thermometer, but in a ratio something different, owing to some of the quicksilver being converted into an elastic vapour in the *vacuum* that takes place at the top of the Torricellian tube, which presses upon the column of quicksilver, and thus counteracts in a small degree the expansion from heat. It does not, however, appear to be a considerable quantity, not amounting to above one-sixteenth of the whole expansion in a range of 40° of temperature; I shall therefore venture to consider this equation as truly uniform, since the error on ten thousand feet would not amount to five.

freezing is  $= \frac{1}{9891}$  of the whole volume, at the temperature  $82^{\circ}$  becomes  $\frac{1}{9941}$ , a difference indeed that may fairly be neglected, and which I neglect myself; yet I cannot help observing, in justice to Mr. DE LUC, that his method of reducing his barometers always to the same standard temperature, was free from the error I am speaking of.

To conclude, the defect of Mr. DE LUC's rules being supposed  $\frac{236}{100000}$ , or, which comes to the same thing, the correction being  $+\frac{2417}{1000000}$ , when the temperature of the air is  $61^{\circ}.4$ , and the true expansion of the air for each degree being  $\frac{239}{1000000}$  when the heat is  $39^{\circ}.7$ ; required to find the temperature wherein the difference of the logarithms shall give the true height in English fathoms, that temperature, according to Mr. DE LUC, being  $39^{\circ}.74$ , and the expansion  $\frac{223}{1000000}$ .

Let  $T$  be the temperature  $61^{\circ}.4$ ;  $s$  Mr. DE LUC's standard temperature;  $E$  the expansion for  $1^{\circ}$ ;  $e$  the same, according to Mr. DE LUC;  $\alpha$  the supposed correction of the rules, and  $x$  the temperature sought. We have then the following formula,  $\overline{T-s} \times \overline{E-e}^{(d)} - \alpha = s - x$ , wherein proceeding with the above numbers  $s - x$  comes out

(d) This sign is negative, because the assumed expansion  $e$  is less than the true one  $E$ , and consequently tended to increase the apparent error of the rules; had it been greater,  $\alpha$  would have been  $+$ .



8°.50, and consequently  $\alpha = 31^{\circ}.24$  the temperature required; which, if it should be thought convenient, may be considered as the freezing point.

In the whole of the above inquiry I have taken no notice of the effect of gravity upon the particles of the air at different distances from the earth's center, which should doubtless enter into the account, and which would occasion the density of the atmosphere to decrease in a ratio something greater than the present theory admits of. In a height of four English miles Dr. HORSLEY finds (Phil. Transf. vol. LXIV.) that the diminution of density or volume from the accelerative force of gravity would be only  $\frac{1}{500}$  part of the whole, or about 48 feet; and I may add to this, that this effect will be in the duplicate ratio of the heights, so that at one mile high it becomes only three feet. A like effect takes place also below the surface of the earth, as in measuring the depths of mines, &c. with this difference, that here it is but half the quantity; in the former instance gravity within the earth being simply as the distance from the center; they are both of them, however, circumstances that deserve no attention in practice.

This would be the place for me to enumerate the many desiderata, besides those already hinted at, that still remain for the perfection of this theory; such as the

laws of heat, that obtain in the different regions of the atmosphere; the effects of moisture, winds, the electric fluid, together with the weight and qualities of the air in different countries, &c.; that at the same time that I am congratulating the present age on one of the most brilliant discoveries in natural philosophy, I may be understood also to encourage every lover of science to still farther enquiries in a branch of knowledge no less useful than ingenious; particularly in a kingdom wherein, from its commercial interests, and in consequence its many inland navigations, every improvement in hydrostatics, the art of levelling, or geometry, cannot but tend considerably to the public benefit. The sources of science are not easily exhausted; multitudes of them remain wholly unexplored. If novelty can afford a charm, the path I am speaking of, till of late, has been the least frequented; witness the fresh, important truths in Pneumatical researches that, from zeal and fashion, every day's experience affords. I might here offer too a tribute of applause (and am sure in concert with this whole assembly) justly due to the indefatigable labours of him whose steps I have pursued; but I am convinced he will rather hear me acknowledge our obligations to the ancients than any panegyric of himself. Be the benefit we receive from them our encouragement to proceed.

*in order to ascertain the height of Mountains.* 571

*Multum egerunt, qui ante nos fuerunt, sed non peregerunt: multum adhuc restat operis, multumque restabit; nec ulli nato post mille sæcula præcludetur occasio aliquid adhuc adjiciendi."* SEN. Epist. 64.

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## P A R T II.

IN the subsequent pages, which I have now the honour of laying before the Royal Society, I have drawn up, and I hope in a form the most commodious, the necessary tables and precepts for calculating any accessible heights or depths from barometrical observations, and without which I thought the preceding memoir would be incomplete; referring, however, to that for the proofs or elements from whence the tables have been computed. And herein I have endeavoured to adapt myself to the capacity of such persons as are but little conversant with mathematical computations, but who may have frequent opportunities of contributing something to the advancement of science by experiments with this useful

instrument, which is now become nearly in as common possession as a pocket watch. I have industriously avoided the method of logarithms, proposed by Dr. HALLEY, and adopted by Mr. DE LUC, both because such tables are not in the hands of every body, and because I have perceived that many persons of a philosophical turn, though skilled only in common arithmetic, have been frightened by the very name: a method less popular, however elegant, would have been less generally useful. To these tables is subjoined a list of several altitudes, as determined by the barometer: this will serve to shew the use I have made of the instrument, and will at the same time exhibit the level of a great number of places in France, Savoy, and Italy, and, as I think, be no improper supplement to exemplify the rules. It might have been expected that I should have said something on the theory of barometrical observations, and have laid down the laws and principles on which it depends; but as that has been so amply done by other writers of uncontested authority, I shall content myself with inserting only the following propositions.

1st, The difference of elevation of two places may be determined by the weight of the vertical column of the atmosphere intercepted between them.

2d, If then the weight of the whole atmosphere at each place can be ascertained, the weight of this column, *viz.* their difference, will be known.

3d, But the height of the quicksilver in the barometer expresses the total weight of the atmosphere in the place of observation; the difference, therefore, of the height of the barometer, observed in two places at the same time, will express the difference of elevation of the two places.

4th, But further, the weight of this column of the atmosphere is liable to some variations, being diminished by heat, and augmented by cold; and again, a similar alteration takes place in the column of quicksilver, which is the measure of this weight.

5th, If then the degree of these variations can be determined, and the temperature of the air and quicksilver at the time of observation be known, the weight of this column of air, or the difference of elevation of the two places, will be concluded as certainly as if the gravity of these two fluids, with all heats, remained invariably the same: this is the whole mystery of barometrical measurement.

## A P P L I C A T I O N.

The height of the barometer in English inches at any two places at the same instant, and the heat (according to FAHRENHEIT'S thermometer) to which it is exposed, being known, together with the temperature of the air at each place, observed with a similar instrument; required the difference of elevation of the two places in English feet.

## R U L E.

Precept the 1<sup>st</sup>, With the difference of the two thermometers that give the heat of the barometer (and which, for distinction sake, I shall call the attached thermometers<sup>(e)</sup>) enter table I. with the degrees of heat in the column on the left hand, and with the height of the barometer in inches, in the horizontal line at the top; in the common point of meeting of the two lines will be found the correction for the expansion of the quicksilver

(e) It is scarce necessary to remark, that, in order to make good conclusive observations, it is proper to be furnished with two barometers, and four thermometers; *viz.* one attached or inserted in the frame of each barometer; and the other two detached from them, in order to take the heat of the open air; for it will seldom be found, that the thermometer in the frame of the barometer and that in the air will stand at the same point, and for a very evident reason.

by

by heat, expressed in thousandth parts of an English inch; which added to the coldest barometer, or subtracted from the hottest, will give the height of the two barometers, such as would have obtained had both instruments been exposed to the same temperature.

Precept the 2d, With these corrected heights of the barometers enter table II. and take out respectively the numbers corresponding to the nearest tenth of an inch; and if the barometers, corrected as in the first precept, are found to stand at an even tenth, without any further fraction, the difference of these two tabular numbers (found by subtracting the less from the greater) will give the approximate height in English feet. But if, as will commonly happen, the correct height of the barometers should not be at an even tenth, write out the difference for one entire tenth, found in the column adjoining, intitled *Differences*; and with this number enter table III. of proportional parts in the first vertical column to the left hand, or in the 11th column, and with the next decimal following the tenths of an inch in the height of the barometer (*viz.* the hundredths) enter the horizontal line at the top, the point of meeting will give a certain number of feet, which write down by itself; do the same by the next decimal figure in the height of the barometer (*viz.* the thousandths of an inch) with this difference,

striking

striking off the last cypher to the right hand for a fraction; add together the two numbers thus found in the table of proportionable parts, and their sum subduct from the tabular numbers just found in table II.; the differences of the tabular numbers, so diminished, will give the approximate height in English feet.

Precept the 3d, Add together the degrees of the two detached or air-thermometers, and divide their sum by 2, the quotient will be an intermediate heat, and must be taken for the mean temperature of the vertical column of air intercepted between the two places of observation: if this temperature should be  $31^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$  on the thermometer, then will the approximate height, before found, be the true height; but if not, take its difference from  $31^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ , and with this difference seek the correction in table IV. for the expansion of air, with the number of degrees in the vertical column on the left hand, and the approximate height to the nearest thousand feet in the horizontal line at the top; for the hundred feet strike off one cypher to the right hand; for the tens strike off two; for the units three: the sum of these several numbers added to the approximate height, if the temperature be greater than  $31^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ , subtracted if less, will give the correct height in English feet. An example or two will make this quite plain.



E X A M P L E I.

Let the height of the barometer, observed at the bottom of a mountain be 29.4 inches, the attached thermometer  $50^{\circ}$ , and the heat of the air  $45^{\circ}$ ; at the same time that at the top of the mountain the barometer is found to stand at 25.190 inches, the attached thermometer at  $46^{\circ}$ , and the air-thermometer at  $39^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ ; required the height of the mountain in English feet. Set the numbers down in the following order:

## Observation at the bottom.

Barometer.	Therm. attached.	Therm. in the air.
In. 29.400	50° 46°	45°
Diff. of the two attached thermometers,		4

## Observation at the top.

	Barom.	Therm. attached.	Therm. in the air.
	In. 25.190	46°	39° $\frac{1}{2}$ 45
Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. viz. 4°,	+ 10.		
Height of the uppermost barometer, reduced to the same heat as the lowermost, viz. 50°, — —	25.200		2)84 $\frac{1}{2}$ (42 $\frac{1}{2}$ mean heat. 31 $\frac{1}{4}$ standard heat. 11 difference.

Correct for 11°, see tab. IV. on 4000 feet 106.9 on 16 — + 5 or on 4016 + 107.4	Tabular number, see tab. II. corresponding to, — The same, corresponding to	In. Feet. 25.200 = 6225.0 29.400 = 2208.2
Approximate height in feet,		4016.8
Correction for 11° of heat on 4016 feet, add,		107.4
Correct height of the mountain.		4124.2

Now the difference of the attached thermometer 50° and 46° is = 4°; and against this number, in table I. in the column for 25 inches (being the height of the barometer in this case) I find 10, which added to 25.190, as this barometer was the coldest, gives 25.200 inches for

the height of the uppermost barometer reduced to the same heat as the lowermost: and in table II. opposite to 25.200 inches and 29.400 inches, I find respectively 6225.0 and 2208.2; their difference 4016.8 is the approximate height in feet. The degrees on the thermometer in the open air,  $39^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  and  $45^{\circ}$  being then added together, and afterwards divided by 2, give for the mean temperature of these observations  $42^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ , or  $11^{\circ}$  above the standard temperature,  $31^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ : and lastly, the correction for  $11^{\circ}$ , in table IV. on 4000 feet I find = 106.9, and on 16 feet = 0.5; that is, 107.4 feet equal the whole correction, which added to 4016.8 gives 4124.2 feet for the correct height of the mountain.

E X A M P L E II.

Suppose the height of the barometer at the top of a rock had been observed at 24.178, the attached thermometer at  $57^{\circ}.2$ , the air-thermometer at  $56^{\circ}$ ; the barometer below at 28.1318 inches, the attached thermometer  $61^{\circ}.8$ , the detached one  $63^{\circ}.9$ ; what is the height of the rock?

### Observation at the bottom.

Barometer.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
In.		
28.1318	61°.8	63°.9
	57.2	
Difference of the two attached thermometers,		<u>4.6</u>

### Observation at the top.

	Barom.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
In.			
	24.1780	57°.2	56.0
Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. <i>viz.</i> 4° 6, —	+ 0.112		63.9
Height of the uppermost barom. reduced to the same heat as the lower- most, namely 61°.8,	24.1892		2) 119.9 (59.95 mean heat. 31.24 standard temp. <u>28.71 difference.</u>
Tabular number, cor- responding to,	24.1000	Feet. 7388.0	Diff. 107.9
The same, see tab. III.	800	86.0	} — 95.9
	90	9.7	
	2	.2	
	<u>24.1892</u>	<u>7292.1</u>	
Tabular number, cor- responding to,	28.1000	3386.6	92.6
The same, see tab. III.	300	28.0	} — 29.6
	10	0.9	
	8	0.7	
	<u>28.1318</u>	<u>3357.0</u>	
And 3357.0 feet taken from	—	7292.1	
Leaves the approximate height in feet,		3935.1	
Correction for 28°.7 of heat on 3935 ft.		+ 274.3	
Correct height of this mountain,		<u>4209.4</u>	

Correct for 28°.7, see tab. IV.	
28° on	<div> 3000 = 204.1  900 = 61.2  35 = 2.4 </div>
0.7 on	<div> 3000 = 5.1  900 = 1.5  35 = 0.0 </div>
28.7 on	3935 274.3

This

This last observation was actually made, and the height geometrically was determined to be 4211.3 feet, not quite two feet different. In this example it will be observed, that as the height of the barometer is set down to four places of decimals; the tabular numbers, answering to every tenth only, are corrected by means of table III. of proportional parts, for the remaining decimals 8, 9, and 2, in one place; and 3, 1, 8, in the other; and their sum is subducted from the numbers found in table II. And lastly, that in finding the correction for  $28^{\circ}.7$  of heat, the fraction  $\frac{7}{10}$  is considered as so many units, and another decimal is struck off; thus the correction on 3000 feet for  $7^{\circ}$  is 51; but for  $\frac{7}{10}$  it becomes 5.1, and so of the rest.

E X A M P L E III.

In the upper gallery of the dome of St. Peter's church at Rome, and 50 feet below the top of the cross, I observed the barometer, from a mean of several observations, 29.5218; the thermometer attached being at  $56^{\circ}.6$ , and the detached one at  $57^{\circ}$ ; at the same time that another, placed on the banks of the Tyber one foot above the surface of the water, stood at 30.0168, the attached thermometer at  $60^{\circ}.6$ , and the detached one at  $60^{\circ}.2$ ; what was the total height of this building above the level of the river?

Obfer-

Observation below, at one foot above the Tyber.

Barometer.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
In.		
30.018	60.6	60°.2
	56.6	

Difference of the two attached thermometers, 4.0

Observation above, in the gallery of St. Peter's church.

Correct for the diff. of the two attached therm. }	29.5218 + 120	56.6 57.0 <u>60.2</u>
Height of the uppermost barom. reduced to the heat of the lowermost viz. 60.5, — }	29.5338	2) 117.2 (58.60 mean heat. 31.24 standard temp. <u>27.36 difference.</u>

Tabular numbers cor- responding to, — }	29.5000	Feet.	Diff.
	300	2119.7	88.2
	30	26.4	
	8	2.6	
		7	—29.7
	<u>29.5338</u>	<u>2090.0</u>	

Tabular numbers cor- responding to, — }	30.0000	1681.7	86.7
	100	8.7	
	60	5.2	
	8	7	—14.6
	<u>30.0168</u>	<u>1667.1</u>	
		<u>2090.0</u>	

Approximate height,	422.9
Correction for 27°.4 of heat on 422 feet,	+ 28.0
Difference of height of the barometers,	+ 50.9
Lowest barom. stood 1 foot above the river,	+ 1.0
Top of the cross above the gallery was,	+ 50.0
Total height of the top of the cross above the river Tyber, — }	501.9
The same measured the same day geo- metrically was, — — }	502.2

Correction for 27°.4	
27° on	{ 400 = 26.2
	22 = 1.4
0.4 on	400 = .4
27.4 on	422 = 28.0

When

When the difference of the heights of the quicksilver in the two barometers happens not to exceed  $\frac{1}{15}$  or even  $\frac{2}{10}$  of an inch (and this will frequently be the case in levelling flat countries, or measuring small heights) in such circumstances the most convenient way of reducing the observations will be by means of the column of differences only; those numbers expressing the length of a column of the atmosphere which corresponds to  $\frac{1}{15}$  of an inch of quicksilver, at any assigned height of the barometer.

E X A M P L E . IV.

Suppose the following observations had been made at the top and bottom of any eminence; *viz.* at the top, barometer 29.985 inches, attached thermometer 70°5, detached thermometer 76°; and below, barometer at 30.082, attached thermometer 71°, and the detached one 68°; what was the height of the eminence?

## Observation below.

Barometer.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
In.		
30.0820	71° 0	68.0
	70.5	
	<hr/>	
Difference of the two attached therm.	0.5	
	<hr/>	

## Observation at the top.

Barometer.	Therm. attached.	Therm. detached.
In.		
29.9850	70.5	76.0
Correct for 0°.5 of heat, +.0015		68.0
		<hr/>
Take — — 29.9865		2) 144.0 (72.0 mean heat.
From — — 30.0820		31.2 standard temp.
		<hr/>
Remains the difference or fall of quicksilver in the barometer, — } 0.0955		+ 40.8 difference.
		<hr/>

The difference for  $\frac{1}{18}$  at 30 inches = 86.7 feet.

Therefore, for 0900	—	—	Feet.
0050	—	—	78.0
0005	—	—	4.3
			<hr/>
			0.4

Correction for 41°.		
	Feet.	Ft.
41° on { 80	= 8.0	
2.7	= .3	
	<hr/>	
41° on 82.7	= 8.3	

Therefore, 0955 inch of quicksilver, — 82.7 the approximate height.  
Correction for 41° on 82.7 feet, + 8.3

Gives — — — 91.0 = the true height.

Now this was the height of the Tarpeian rock, or the west-end of the Capitol-hill in Rome, above the convent of St. Clare, in the *Strada dei specchi*.

The preceding rules for determining heights above the surface of the earth will, I presume, answer equally well for measuring depths below it.



*in order to ascertain the height of Mountains.* 585

TABLE I. For the expansion of quicksilver by heat,  
see p. 574.

Degr. of the Therm.	Height of the barometer in inches.												
	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32
1	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.2
2	4.1	4.3	4.5	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.5	5.7	5.9	6.1	6.3	6.5
3	6.1	6.4	6.7	7.0	7.3	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.5	8.8	9.1	9.4	9.7
4	8.1	8.5	8.9	9.3	9.7	10.1	10.5	11.0	11.4	11.8	12.2	12.6	13.0
5	10.1	10.6	11.1	11.6	12.1	12.7	13.2	13.7	14.2	14.7	15.2	15.7	16.2
6	12.2	12.8	13.4	14.0	14.6	15.2	15.8	16.4	17.0	17.6	18.2	18.8	19.5
7	14.2	14.9	15.6	16.3	17.0	17.7	18.4	19.2	19.8	20.6	21.3	22.0	22.7
8	16.2	17.0	17.8	18.6	19.4	20.2	21.0	21.9	22.7	23.5	24.3	25.2	25.9
9	18.2	19.2	20.1	21.0	21.9	22.8	23.7	24.6	25.6	26.5	27.4	28.3	29.2
10	20.3	21.3	22.3	23.3	24.3	25.3	26.3	27.4	28.4	29.4	30.4	31.4	32.4
11	22.3	23.4	24.5	25.6	26.7	27.8	28.9	30.1	31.2	32.3	33.4	34.5	35.6
12	24.3	25.6	26.8	28.0	29.2	30.4	31.6	32.9	34.1	35.3	36.5	37.6	38.9
13	26.3	27.7	29.0	30.3	31.6	32.9	34.2	35.6	36.9	38.2	39.5	40.8	42.1
14	28.4	29.8	31.2	32.6	34.0	35.4	36.8	38.4	39.8	41.2	42.6	43.9	45.4
15	30.4	31.9	33.4	34.9	36.4	37.9	39.4	41.1	42.6	44.1	45.6	47.1	48.6
16	32.4	34.1	35.6	37.2	38.8	40.5	42.0	43.8	45.4	47.0	48.6	50.3	51.8
17	34.5	36.2	37.9	39.6	41.3	43.0	44.7	46.6	48.3	50.0	51.7	53.4	55.1
18	36.5	38.3	40.1	41.9	43.7	45.5	47.3	49.3	51.1	52.9	54.7	56.5	58.3
19	38.5	40.5	42.3	44.2	46.1	48.1	49.9	52.1	54.0	55.9	57.8	59.7	61.6
20	40.6	42.6	44.6	46.6	48.6	50.6	52.6	54.8	56.8	58.8	60.8	62.8	64.9
21	42.6	44.7	46.8	48.9	51.0	53.2	55.2	57.5	59.6	61.7	63.8	65.9	68.1
22	44.6	46.9	49.1	51.3	53.5	55.7	57.9	60.3	62.5	64.7	66.9	69.0	71.4
23	46.6	49.0	51.3	53.6	55.9	58.2	60.5	63.0	65.3	67.6	69.9	72.2	74.6
24	48.6	51.1	53.5	55.9	58.3	60.8	63.1	65.8	68.2	70.6	73.0	75.4	77.8
25	50.7	53.2	55.8	58.2	60.7	63.2	65.7	68.5	71.0	73.5	76.0	78.5	81.1
26	52.7	55.4	58.0	60.5	63.1	65.8	68.3	71.2	73.8	76.4	79.0	81.6	84.5
27	54.7	57.5	60.3	62.9	65.6	68.3	71.0	74.0	76.7	79.4	82.1	84.8	87.5
28	56.8	59.6	62.5	65.2	68.0	70.8	73.6	76.7	79.5	82.3	85.1	87.9	90.7
29	58.8	61.8	64.7	67.5	70.4	73.3	76.2	79.5	82.4	85.3	88.2	91.1	94.1
30	60.8	63.9	66.9	69.9	72.8	75.9	78.9	82.2	85.2	88.2	91.2	94.1	97.5
31	62.8	66.0	69.1	72.2	75.2	78.4	81.5	84.9	88.0	91.1	94.2	97.4	100.5
32	64.8	68.2	71.4	74.6	77.7	81.0	84.2	87.7	90.9	94.1	97.3	100.5	103.8
33	66.9	70.3	73.6	76.9	80.1	83.5	86.8	90.4	93.7	97.0	100.3	103.6	107.0
34	68.9	72.4	75.8	79.2	82.5	86.1	89.4	93.2	96.6	100.0	103.4	106.7	110.3
35	70.9	74.5	78.0	81.5	84.0	88.6	92.0	95.9	99.4	102.9	106.4	109.9	113.5
36	73.0	76.7	80.2	83.8	86.4	91.1	94.6	98.6	102.2	105.8	109.4	113.1	116.8
37	75.0	78.8	82.5	86.2	88.9	93.6	97.3	101.4	105.1	108.8	112.5	116.2	120.0
38	77.0	80.9	84.7	88.5	91.3	96.2	99.9	104.1	107.9	111.7	115.5	119.3	123.2
39	79.0	83.1	86.9	90.8	93.7	98.7	102.5	106.9	110.8	114.7	118.6	122.5	126.5
40	81.1	85.2	89.2	93.2	97.2	101.2	105.2	109.6	113.6	117.6	121.6	125.6	129.7

TABLE II<sup>(f)</sup>. Giving the approximate height in English feet, adapted to the temperature  $31^{\circ}24$  of FAHRENHEIT's thermometer.

Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.	Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.	Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.
Inch.	Feet.		Inch.	Feet.		Inch.	Feet.	
1.—	60309.0	18062	16.10	19570.4	173.1	16.60	17102.5	157.5
2.—	72247.2	10565	20	19398.4	172.0	70	16946.0	156.5
3.—	61681.8	7496	30	19227.5	170.9	80	16790.4	155.6
4.—	54185.4	5814	40	19057.7	169.8	90	16635.8	154.6
5.—	48370.8	4761	50	18889.1	168.6	17 00	16482.1	153.7
6.—	43619.9	4017	60	18721.5	167.6	10	16329.2	152.9
7.—	39603.1	3480	70	18555.0	166.5	20	16177.3	151.9
8.—	36123.6	3069	80	18389.6	165.4	30	16026.2	151.1
9.—	33054.4	2745	90	18225.2	164.4	40	15876.0	150.2
10.—	30309.0	2484	16.00	18061.8	163.4	50	15726.7	149.3
11.—	27825.4	2267	10	17899.4	162.4	60	15578.2	148.5
12.—	25558.1	2086	20	17738.1	161.3	70	15430.6	147.6
13.—	23472.4	1931	30	17577.7	160.4	80	15283.8	146.8
14.—	21541.3	1798	40	17418.4	159.3	90	15137.8	146.0
15.00	19743.5		50	17260.0	158.4	18.00	14992.6	145.2

(f) This table bears some analogy to the tables of logistical logarithms, being nothing more than the differences of the logarithms of the height of the barometer from the logarithm of 32 inches multiplied by fix. I have chosen the logarithm of 32 for my term of comparison, that being the greatest probable height that the barometer will ever be seen at, even at the bottom of the deepest mines. Had I taken the mean height of the quicksilver at the level of the sea, it is true the numbers in the table would have more truly represented the heights in the atmosphere, corresponding to the given height of the quicksilver; but then, in computing small depths or heights from the surface of the sea, we should have been obliged sometimes to have changed the signs in the operation, which appeared to me less convenient. The mean height of the barometer at the level of the sea, from 132 observations in Italy and in England, is 30.04 inches, the heat of the barometer being  $55^{\circ}$ , and the air  $62^{\circ}$ ; so that the term of comparison in this table, *viz.* 32 inches, corresponds to an imaginary point within the earth at 1647 feet below the surface of the sea.

TABLE II. continued.

Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.	Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.	Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.
Inch.	Feet.		Inch.	Feet.		inch.	Feet.	
18.10	14848.3	144.3	22.00	9753.6	118.8	25.90	5311.0	100.8
20	14704.7	143.6	10	9645.5	118.1	26.00	5410.4	100.6
30	14561.9	142.8	20	9527.8	117.7	10	5310.6	99.8
40	14419.9	142.0	30	9410.7	117.1	20	5210.9	99.7
50	14278.7	141.2	40	9294.1	116.6	30	5111.5	99.3
60	14138.2	140.5	50	9178.1	116.0	40	5012.8	98.8
70	13998.5	139.7	60	9062.5	115.6	50	4914.2	98.6
80	13859.5	139.0	70	8947.4	115.1	60	4816.1	98.1
90	13721.3	138.2	80	8832.9	114.5	70	4718.3	97.8
19.00	13583.8	137.5	90	8718.9	114.0	80	4620.9	97.4
10	13447.0	136.8	23.00	8605.3	113.6	90	4523.9	97.0
20	13310.9	136.1	10	8492.3	113.0	27.00	4427.2	96.7
30	13175.6	135.3	20	8379.7	112.6	10	4330.8	96.4
40	13041.1	134.5	30	8267.6	112.1	20	4234.9	95.9
50	12906.9	134.2	40	8156.0	111.6	30	4139.2	95.7
60	12773.6	133.3	50	8044.9	111.1	40	4044.0	95.2
70	12641.0	132.6	60	7934.3	110.6	50	3949.0	95.0
80	12509.1	131.9	70	7824.1	110.2	60	3854.5	94.5
90	12337.0	131.3	80	7714.4	109.7	70	3760.2	94.3
20.00	12247.2	130.6	90	7605.1	109.3	80	3666.3	93.9
10	12117.2	130.0	24.00	7496.3	108.8	90	3572.7	93.6
20	11987.9	129.3	10	7388.0	108.3	28.00	3479.5	93.2
30	11859.2	128.7	20	7280.1	107.9	10	3386.6	92.9
40	11731.2	128.0	30	7172.6	107.5	20	3294.0	92.6
50	11603.8	127.4	40	7065.6	107.0	30	3201.8	92.2
60	11477.0	126.8	50	6959.0	106.6	40	3109.9	91.9
70	11350.0	126.2	60	6852.9	106.1	50	3018.3	91.6
80	11225.2	125.6	70	6747.2	105.7	60	2927.0	91.3
90	11100.2	125.0	80	6641.9	105.3	70	2836.1	90.9
21.00	10975.8	124.4	90	6537.0	104.9	80	2745.4	90.7
10	10852.1	123.7	25.00	6432.6	104.4	90	2655.1	90.3
20	10728.8	123.3	10	6328.6	104.0	29.00	2565.1	90.0
30	10606.2	122.6	20	6225.0	103.6	10	2475.4	89.7
40	10484.2	122.0	30	6121.8	103.2	20	2386.0	89.4
50	10362.7	121.5	40	6019.0	102.8	30	2296.9	89.1
60	10241.8	120.9	50	5916.6	102.4	40	2208.2	88.7
70	10121.4	120.4	60	5814.6	102.0	50	2119.7	88.5
80	10001.6	119.8	70	5713.0	101.6	60	2031.5	88.2
90	9882.4	119.2	80	5611.8	101.2	70	1943.6	87.9

TABLE II. continued.

Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.	Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.	Height of the Barom.	Height.	Diff.
Inch.	Feet.		Inch.	Feet.		Inch.	Feet.	
29.80	1856.0	87.6	30.60	1165.7	85.3	31.40	493.2	83.1
90	1768.7	87.3	70	1080.7	85.0	50	410.4	82.8
30.00	1681.7	87.0	80	996.0	84.7	60	327.8	82.6
10	1595.0	86.7	90	911.5	84.5	70	245.4	82.4
20	1508.6	86.4	31.00	827.3	84.2	80	163.4	82.0
30	1422.4	86.2	10	743.4	83.9	90	81.6	81.0
40	1236.6	85.8	20	659.7	83.7	32.00	00.0	81.6
50	1251.0	85.6	30	576.3	83.4			

TABLE III. Of proportional parts.

Diff.	1.	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
81	8	16	24	32	40	49	57	65	73	106	11	21	32	42	53	64	74	85	95
82	8	16	25	33	41	49	57	66	74	107	11	21	32	43	53	64	75	86	96
83	8	17	25	33	41	50	58	66	75	108	11	22	3	43	54	65	76	86	97
84	8	17	25	34	42	50	59	67	76	109	11	22	33	44	54	65	76	87	98
85	8	17	25	34	42	51	59	68	76	110	11	22	33	44	55	66	77	88	99
86	9	17	26	34	43	52	60	69	77	111	11	22	33	44	55	67	78	89	100
87	9	17	26	35	43	52	61	70	78	112	11	22	34	45	56	67	78	90	101
88	9	18	26	35	44	53	62	70	79	113	11	23	34	45	56	68	79	90	102
89	9	18	27	36	44	53	62	71	80	114	11	23	34	46	57	68	80	91	103
90	9	18	27	36	45	54	63	72	81	115	11	23	34	46	57	69	80	92	103
91	9	18	27	36	45	55	64	73	82	116	12	23	35	46	58	70	81	93	104
92	9	18	28	37	46	55	64	74	83	117	12	23	35	47	58	70	82	94	105
93	9	19	28	37	46	56	65	74	84	118	12	24	35	47	59	71	83	94	106
94	9	19	28	38	47	56	66	75	85	119	12	24	36	48	59	71	83	95	107
95	9	19	28	38	47	57	66	76	85	120	12	24	36	48	60	72	84	96	108
96	10	19	29	38	48	58	67	77	86	121	12	24	36	48	60	73	85	97	109
97	10	19	29	39	48	58	68	78	87	122	12	24	37	49	61	73	85	98	110
98	10	20	29	39	49	59	69	78	88	123	12	25	37	49	61	74	86	98	111
99	10	20	30	40	49	59	69	79	89	124	12	25	37	50	62	74	87	99	112
100	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	125	12	25	37	50	62	75	87	100	112
101	10	20	30	40	50	61	71	81	91	126	13	25	38	50	63	76	88	101	113
102	10	20	31	41	51	61	71	82	92	127	13	25	38	51	63	76	89	102	114
103	10	21	31	41	51	62	72	82	93	128	13	26	38	51	64	77	90	102	115
104	10	21	31	42	52	62	73	83	94	129	13	26	39	52	64	77	90	103	116
105	10	21	31	42	52	63	73	84	94	130	13	26	39	52	65	78	91	104	117

TABLE IV. For the expansion of the air, or correction of the uppermost height, see p. 576.

Deg.	Approximate height in feet.								
0	1000.	2000.	3000.	4000.	5000.	6000.	7000.	8000.	9000.
1	2.4	4.9	7.3	9.7	12.1	14.6	17.0	19.4	21.9
2	4.9	9.7	14.6	19.4	24.3	29.2	34.0	38.9	43.7
3	7.3	14.6	21.9	29.2	36.4	43.7	51.0	58.3	65.6
4	9.7	19.4	29.2	38.9	48.6	58.3	68.0	77.8	87.5
5	12.1	24.3	36.4	48.6	60.7	72.9	85.0	97.2	109.3
6	14.6	29.2	43.7	58.3	72.8	87.5	102.0	116.6	131.2
7	17.0	34.0	51.0	68.0	85.0	102.1	119.0	136.1	153.0
8	19.4	38.9	58.3	77.8	97.1	116.6	136.0	155.5	174.9
9	21.9	43.7	65.6	87.5	109.3	131.2	153.0	175.0	196.8
10	24.3	48.6	72.9	97.2	121.5	145.8	170.1	194.4	218.7
11	26.7	53.5	80.2	106.9	133.6	160.4	187.1	213.8	240.6
12	29.2	58.3	87.5	116.6	145.8	175.0	204.1	233.3	262.4
13	31.6	63.2	94.8	126.4	157.9	189.5	221.1	252.7	284.3
14	34.0	68.0	102.1	136.1	170.1	204.1	238.1	272.2	306.2
15	36.4	72.9	109.3	145.8	182.2	218.7	255.1	291.6	328.0
16	38.8	77.8	116.6	155.5	194.3	233.3	272.1	311.0	349.9
17	41.3	82.6	123.9	165.2	206.5	247.9	289.1	330.5	371.7
18	43.7	87.5	131.2	175.0	218.6	262.4	306.1	349.9	393.6
19	46.1	92.3	138.5	184.7	230.8	277.0	323.1	369.4	415.5
20	48.5	97.2	145.8	194.4	243.0	291.6	340.2	388.8	437.4
21	51.0	102.1	153.1	204.1	255.1	306.2	357.2	408.2	459.3
22	53.5	106.9	160.4	213.8	267.3	320.8	374.2	427.7	481.1
23	55.9	111.8	167.7	223.6	279.4	335.3	391.2	447.1	503.0
24	58.3	116.6	175.0	233.3	291.6	349.9	408.2	466.6	524.9
25	60.7	121.5	182.2	243.0	303.7	364.5	425.2	486.0	546.7

TABLE IV. continued.

Deg.	Approximate height in feet.								
0	1000	2000.	3000.	4000	5000.	6000.	7000.	8000	9000.
26	63.1	126.4	189.5	252.7	315.8	379.1	442.2	505.4	568.6
27	65.6	131.2	196.8	262.4	328.0	393.7	459.2	524.9	590.4
28	68.0	136.1	204.1	272.2	340.1	408.2	476.2	544.3	612.3
29	70.4	140.9	211.4	281.9	352.3	422.8	493.2	563.8	634.2
30	72.9	145.8	218.7	291.6	364.5	437.4	510.3	583.2	656.1
31	75.3	150.7	226.0	301.3	376.6	452.0	527.3	602.6	678.0
32	77.8	155.5	233.3	311.0	388.8	466.6	544.3	622.1	699.8
33	80.2	160.4	240.6	320.8	400.9	480.1	561.3	641.5	721.7
34	82.6	165.2	247.9	330.5	413.1	495.7	578.3	661.0	743.6
35	85.0	170.1	255.1	340.2	425.2	510.2	595.3	685.4	765.4
36	87.4	175.0	262.4	349.9	437.3	524.8	612.3	699.8	787.3
37	89.9	179.8	269.7	359.6	449.5	539.4	629.3	719.3	809.1
38	92.3	184.7	277.0	369.4	461.6	553.9	646.3	738.7	831.0
39	94.7	189.5	284.3	379.1	473.8	568.5	663.3	758.2	852.9
40	97.2	194.4	291.6	388.8	486.0	583.2	680.4	777.6	874.8
41	99.6	199.3	298.9	398.5	498.1	597.8	697.4	797.0	895.7
42	102.1	204.1	306.2	408.2	510.3	612.4	714.4	816.5	918.5
43	104.5	209.0	313.5	418.0	522.4	626.9	731.4	835.9	940.4
44	106.9	213.8	320.8	427.7	534.6	641.5	748.4	855.4	962.3
45	109.3	218.7	328.0	437.4	546.7	656.1	765.4	874.8	984.1
46	111.7	223.6	335.3	447.1	558.8	670.7	782.4	894.2	1006.0
47	114.2	228.4	342.6	456.8	571.0	685.3	799.4	913.7	1027.8
48	116.6	233.3	349.9	466.6	583.1	699.8	816.4	933.1	1049.7
49	119.0	238.1	357.2	476.3	595.3	714.4	833.4	952.6	1071.6
50	121.5	243.0	364.5	486.0	607.5	729.0	850.5	972.0	1093.5

Table of heights taken by the barometer, &amp;c.

	+ or — the Lake of Geneva.	Feet.	Above the Mediterranean. Feet.
The Lake of Geneva, from 18 observations, —	—	0	1230 (g)
Greatest depth of the Lake, — — —	—	393	
Cluse, at the Croix Blanche, first-floor, (b) 2,	+	351	1581
Chamouny, ground-floor of the inn near the foot of } Mont Blanc, 4 — — —	+	2137	3367
The Montanvert, at the Chateau, 1 —	+	5001	6231
The source of the river Arvèron, at the bottom of the } Vallée de Glace, 1 — — —	+	2426	3656
Salenche, at the inn, second-floor, 1 —	+	664	1941
La Bonne-Ville, a la Ville de Geneve, second floor, 1	+	245	1475
Chatlains, country house near Geneva, ground-floor, 6	+	178	
The ball on the highest, or south-west, tower of St. } Peter's church in Geneva, 6 — — —	+	249	
St. Joire, in a field at the foot of the Mole, 6 —	+	671	1901
Summit of the Mole, — — — —	+	4883	6113
Pitton, highest point of Mont Saleve, 6 —		3284	4514
The Dole, highest summit of Mont Jura, 6 —	+	4293	5523
The Buet, 6 — — — —	+	8894	10124
Aiguille d'Argentière, 6 — — — —	+	12172	13402
Mont Blanc, 6 — — — —	+	14432	15662
Frangy, at the inn, first-floor, below the Lake,	—	166	
Aix, a la Ville de Geneve, first-floor, below the Lake,	—	378	
Chambery, au St. Jean Baptiste, first-floor, below the Lake,	—	352	
Aiguebelle, at the inn, first-floor, below the Lake,	—	190	
La Chambre, at the inn, first-floor, above the Lake,	+	337	
St. Michael, at the inn, first-floor, —	+	1113	2343
Modane, at the inn, first floor, — —	+	2220	3450

(g) More correctly 1228 feet, but I have taken it at 1230 in round numbers.

(b) The figures at the end of some of the names shew the number of observations that were made; and the letter 6 indicates such observations to have been geometrical.



Table of heights, &c. continued.

	+ or — the Lake of Geneva.	Above the Mediterranean.
	Feet.	Feet.
Lannebourg, the foot of Mont Cenis, at the inn, first-floor, +	3178	4408
Mont Cenis, at the Post , — — — +	5031	6261
———— at the Grande Croix, — — — +	4793	6023
Novalesse, the foot of Mont Cenis on the side of Italy, } at the inn, first-floor, — — — }	+ 1511	2741
Boucholin, on the first-floor, — — — +	213	
St. Ambroise, on the first-floor, below the Lake, —	40	
Turin, a l'Hôtel d'Angleterre, second-floor, 4 —	289	941
Felissano, near Alessandria, first-floor, 1 —	671	
Piacenza, St. Marco, first-floor, 1 — —	967	263
Parma, au Paon, first-floor, 3 — —	923	307
Bologna, au Pelerin, first-floor, 3 —	831	399
Loiano, a little village on the Appenines, between } Bologna and Florence, — — — }		2591
The mountain Raticosa, the highest point of the Ap- penines the road passes over, 1½ miles beyond File- caije in going to Covigliaje, — — — }	+ 1671	2901
Florence, nel Corso dei Tintori, 50 feet above the } Arno, which was 18 feet below the wall of the quay, 3 }	— 990	+ 240
Pisa, aux Trois Demoiselles, second-floor, 4 — . —	1228	+ 54½
Leghorn, chez Muston, second-floor, 2 — —	1244	+ 38
Siena, aux Trois Rois, second-floor, 2 — —	164	1066
Redicoffani, at the Post, first-floor, above the Lake, +	1240	2470
———— the top of the tower of the old fortifica- tion on the summit of the rock, — — — }	1830	3060
Viterbo, aux Trois Rois, first-floor, on the Ciminus } of the Ancients, — — — }	+ 29	1259
Rome, nel Corso, 61 feet above the Tyber, 7 —	1084	94

(i) The rocks on each side the plain, where the post-house stands, are at least 3000 feet higher than this situation; and it is from the snow on the tops, and through the crevices, that the lake on this plain is formed, which gives rise to the Dora, and may be called one of the sources of the Po.

## Table of heights, &amp;c. continued.

	Above the River Tyber. Feet.	Above the Mediterranean. Feet.
The Level of the river Tyber, — —		33
The top of the Janiculum, near the Villa Spada, —	260	
Aventine Hill, near the Priory of Malta, —	117	
In the Forum, near the arch of SEVERUS, where the ground is raised $23\frac{1}{2}$ feet, — — }	34	
Palatine Hill, on the floor of the Imperial palace —	133	
Celian Hill, near the CLAUDIAN aqueduct, —	125	
Bottom of the canal of the CLAUDIAN aqueduct, —	175	
Esquiline Hill, on the floor of St. M. Major's church,	154	
Capitol Hill, on the West-end of the Tarpeian rock,	118	
In the Strada dei Specchi, in the convent of St. Clare,	27	
On the union of the Viminal and Quirinal Hills, in the Carthusian's church, DIOCLES. Baths, — — }	141	
Pincian Hill, in the garden of the Villa Medici, —	165	
Top of the cross of St. Peter's church, —	502	
The base of the obelisk, in the center of the Peristyle,	31	
The summit of the mountain Soracte, lying about $20\frac{1}{2}$ } geog. miles N. of Rome, — — }		2271
The summit of Monte Velino, one of the Appenines, covered with snow in June, about 46 geog. miles N.W. of Rome, and which is probably the highest of the Appenines, — — — }		8397
Naples, Casa Isolata on the Chiaia, $27\frac{1}{2}$ feet above the sea, — — — }	+ or — the Lake of Geneva. — 1197	
Mount Vesuvius, mouth of the Crater from whence the fire issued in 1776, — — }		3938 <sup>(k)</sup>

Table

(k) Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON informed me, that the height of Vesuvius, as taken by Mr. DE SAUSSURE of Geneva in 1772, with only a barometer of Mr. DE LUC's construction, and according to his rules, was  $3659\frac{1}{2}$  French feet = 3900 English, which agrees pretty well with mine. But the Padre DELLA TORRE pretends to have found the height of Vesuvius in 1752 (see p. 44. of his

Table of heights, &c. continued.

	+	or —	the Lake of Geneva.	Above the Mediterranean.
Mount Vesuvius, at the base of the cone,	—	—		2021
Top of the mountain Somma,	—	—		3738
The summit of Mount Ætna,	—	—		10954 (1)
The following heights are determined from corresponding observations by Mr. MESSIER at Paris, whose barometer is supposed 108 feet above the sea.				
Barberino di Valdenfa, between Boggebonri and Tavernelle,				974
Modena, a l'Albergo nuovo,	—	—		214
Montmelian, at 20 feet above the river,	—	—		811
Monte Vifo, by an observation from Jurin, by means } accurate, G — — — — }				9997
Monte Rosa, as measured geometrically by the Father } BECCARIA, being the second mountain of all the } Alps, — — — — }				15084
Pont Beauvoisin,	—	—	—	705
La tour du Pin, 4	—	—	—	938
Verpillière,	—	—	—	566

his History of this Mountain) = 1677 French feet only, the difference of his barometer at the top and at the level of the sea being no more than  $23\frac{1}{2}$  French lines = 2.065 English inches, which was certainly a mistake of little less than 2000 feet in the result. The Abbé NOLLET in 1749 found the fall of the quicksilver 40 lines = 3.55 inches English; and, if this observation is to be depended upon, the summit of this volcano has risen within these 27 years more than 330 feet perpendicular.

(1) I have ventured to compute the height of this celebrated mountain from my own tables, though from an observation of Mr. DE SAUSSURE's in 1773, which that gentleman obligingly communicated to me. It will serve to shew, that this volcano is by no means the highest mountain of the old world; and that Vesuvius, placed upon Mount Ætna, would not be equal to the height of Mont Blanc, which latter I take to be the most elevated point in Europe, Asia, or Africa.

The circumference of the visible horizon on the top of Mount Ætna, allowance being made for refraction, which I estimate at 6', is 1093 English miles.

## Table of heights, &amp;c. continued.

	+ or — the Lake of Geneva.	Above the Mediterranean,
Lyons, at the Hôtel Blanc, 50 feet above the Saône,		449
St. Jean le vieux, — — —		695
Cerdon, near the post-house at the foot of the rocks,		854
Nantua, 10 feet above the Lake, — —		1423
Chatillon, at the Logis Neuf, — —		1629
Colonges, — — — —		1626
St. Genis, apparently on a level with the foot of Mont Jura,		1501
Geneva, at 100 feet above the Lake, 5 —		1268 <sup>(m)</sup>
Mâcon, at the Parc, 24 feet above the Saône —		514
Dijon, à la Cloche, the first-floor, — —		710
Mountain of Maraiselois <sup>(n)</sup> , $4\frac{3}{4}$ miles beyond Viteaux } towards Dijon, — — — }		1677
Lucy-le-bois, — — — —		645
Auxerre, 50 feet above the river, — —		283
Sens, at the Post, — — —		163
Fontainebleau, at the Grand Cerf, second-floor, —		242

(*m*) From this comparison with Mr. MESSIER's observations at Paris, which makes the Lake of Geneva only 1168 feet above the level of the sea (whereas from 18 observations in Italy, near the shore of the Mediterranean, it appears to be 1228, *viz.* + 60 feet different). I am inclined to believe, that Mr. MESSIER's place of observation is about 50 feet higher than I have supposed it, *viz.* 160 feet above the sea instead of 108, as deduced from three observations only at Boulogne, Calais, and at Dover. If this be allowed, the same number of feet must be added also to all the other heights that are determined by comparison with Mr. MESSIER's observations. I am, however, by no means sure of this, but leave it to future observers.

(*n*) On one side of this mountain is a little stream called Amançon, that joins the Yonne and the Seine, and thus goes to the Atlantic; while on the other side is found the Ouche, which, uniting with the Saône and the Rhone, runs to the Mediterranean: this part of Burgundy then seems to be one of the highest in France.

Table of heights, &c. continued.

	+ or — the Seine at Paris.	Above the Mediterranean.
Paris, mean height of the Seine, — that is, <i>quand les eaux se trouvent à 13 pieds 9 pouces sur l'échelle du Pont Royal selon M. DE LA LANDE,</i> —		36½
Place of my own observations in the Rue Jacob, second- floor, — — — — — }	+ 57	
Mr. MESSIER's observatory, at the Hôtel de Clugny, } first floor, — — — — —	72	
Mr. DE LA LANDE's ditto, at the Collège Royal, first-floor,	101	
Place of Monf. le Pere COTTES's observations at Mont- morency, 10 miles North of Paris, — }	333	
Stone-gallery of the Church on Mont Valerien,	473	
Depth of the cave of the Royal Observatory at Paris } below the pavement, — — — — —	98½	
The same, according to Mr. DE LA LANDE, by actual } measurement, — — — — —	98	
Height of the north tower of the church of Notre } Dame above the floor, — — — — —	220½	
———— by actual measurement, — — — — —	218½	
Chantilly, — — — — —		119
Clermont, — — — — —		329
Amiens, Rue de Noyon, first-floor, — — — — —		147
Abbeville, first-floor, — — — — —		79
	Below the mean height of the Seine.	
Boulogne, mean level of the sea, from one observ. only, —	33.9	
Calais, ditto, from one observation, — — — — —	38.8	
Dover, ditto, from three observations made two years } preceding those at Calais and Boulogne, — — — — —	36.6	
Mean height of the river (o) Thames at London above the mean height of the river Seine from five direct } comparisons with Mr. MESSIER, — — — — —	+ 6.8	
And consequently the Thames at London above the sea,		43
Warwick, mean level of the river Avon, — — — — —		155
Shuckburgh-house, in Warwickshire, — — — — —		560

(o) By the mean height of the river Thames is understood when the water is 15½ feet below the pavement in the left-hand arcade at Buckingham-stairs.



XXX. *An Account of the Bramin's Observatory at Benares.*

*By Sir Robert Barker, Knt. F. R. S.; in a Letter to Sir John Pringle, Bart. P. R. S.*

S I R,

Read May 29, 1777. **B**ENARES in the East Indies, one of the principal seminaries of the Bramins or priests of the original Gentoos of Hindostan, continues still to be the place of resort of that sect of people; and there are many publick charities, hospitals, and pagodas, where some thousands of them now reside. Having frequently heard that the ancient Bramins had a knowledge of astronomy, and being confirmed in this by their information of an approaching eclipse both of the Sun and Moon, I made inquiry, when at that place in the year 1772, among the principal Bramins, to endeavour to get some information relative to the manner in which they were acquainted of an approaching eclipse. The most intelligent that I could meet with, however, gave me but little satisfaction. I was told, that these matters were confined to a few, who were in possession of certain books and records; some containing the mysteries







teries of their religion, and others the tables of astronomical observations, written in the Skanskirrit language, which few understood but themselves: that they would take me to a place which had been constructed for the purpose of making such observations as I was inquiring after, and from whence they supposed the learned Bramins made theirs. I was then conducted to an ancient building of stone, the lower part of which, in its present situation, was converted into a stable for horses, and a receptacle for lumber; but, by the number of court-yards and apartments, it appeared that it must once have been an edifice for the use of some public body of people. We entered this building, and went up a staircase to the top of a part of it, near to the river Ganges, that led to a large terrace, where, to my surprize and satisfaction, I saw a number of instruments yet remaining, in the greatest preservation, stupendously large, immoveable from the spot, and built of stone, some of them being upwards of twenty feet in height; and, although they are said to have been erected two hundred years ago, the graduations and divisions on the several arcs appeared as well cut, and as accurately divided, as if they had been the performance of a modern artist. The execution in the construction of these instruments exhibited a mathematical exactness in the fixing, bearing, and fitting.

fitting of the several parts, in the necessary and sufficient supports to the very large stones that composed them, and in the joining and fastening each into the other by means of lead and iron.

The situation of the two large quadrants of the instrument marked A in the first plate, whose radius is nine feet two inches, by their being at right angles with a gnomon at twenty-five degrees elevation, are thrown into such an oblique situation as to render them the most difficult, not only to construct of such a magnitude, but to secure in their position for so long a period, and affords a striking instance of the ability of the architect in their construction; for, by the shadow of the gnomon thrown on the quadrants, they do not appear to have altered in the least from their original position; and so true is the line of the gnomon, that, by applying the eye to a small iron ring of an inch diameter at one end, the sight is carried through three others of the same dimension to the extremity at the other end, distant thirty-eight feet eight inches, without obstruction; such is the firmness and art with which this instrument has been executed. This performance is the more wonderful and extraordinary when compared with the works of the artificers of Hindostan at this day, who are not under the immediate direction

direction of an European mechanic; but arts appear to have declined equally with science in the East.

Lieutenant-colonel ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL, at that time chief engineer in the East India Company's service at Bengal, a gentleman whose abilities do honour to his profession, made a perspective drawing of the whole of the apparatus that could be brought within his eye at one view; but I lament he could not represent some very large quadrants, whose radii were about twenty feet, they being on the side from whence he took his drawing. Their description however is, that they are exact quarters of circles of different radii, the largest of which I judged to be twenty feet, constructed very exactly on the sides of stone walls built perpendicular, and situated, I suppose, in the meridian of the place: a brass pin is fixed at the center or angle of the quadrant, from whence, the Bramin informed me, they stretched a wire to the circumference when an observation was to be made; from which it occurred to me, the observer must have moved his eye up or down the circumference, by means of a ladder or some such contrivance, to raise and lower himself, until he had discovered the altitude of any of the heavenly bodies in their passage over the meridian, so expressed on the arcs of these quadrants: these arcs were very exactly divided into

nine large sections; each of which again into ten, making ninety lesser divisions or degrees; and those also into twenty, expressing three minutes each, of about two-tenths of an inch asunder; so that it is probable, they had some method of dividing even these into more minute divisions at the time of observation.

My time would only permit me to take down the particular dimensions of the most capital instrument, or the greater equinoctial Sun-dial, represented by figure A, plate 12. which appears to be an instrument to express solar time by the shadow of a gnomon upon two quadrants, one situated to the east, and the other to the west of it; and indeed the chief part of their instruments at this place appear to be constructed for the same purpose, except the quadrants, and a brass instrument that will be described hereafter.

Figure B is another instrument for the purpose of determining the exact hour of the day by the shadow of a gnomon, which stands perpendicular to and in the center of a flat circular stone, supported in an oblique situation by means of four upright stones and a cross-piece; so that the shadow of the gnomon, which is a perpendicular iron rod, is thrown upon the divisions of the circle described on the face of the flat, circular stone.

Figure c is a brass circle, about two feet diameter, moving vertically upon two pivots between two stone pillars, having an index or hand turning round horizontally on the center of this circle, which is divided into 360 parts; but there are no counter divisions on the index to sub-divide those on the circle. This instrument appears to be made for taking the angle of a star at setting or rising, or for taking the azimuth or amplitude of the Sun at rising or setting.

The use of the instrument, figure d, I was at a loss to account for. It consists of two circular walls; the outer of which is about forty feet diameter, and eight feet high; the wall within about half that height, and appears intended for a place to stand on to observe the divisions on the upper circle of the outer wall, rather than for any other purpose; and yet both circles are divided into 360 degrees, each degree being sub-divided into twenty lesser divisions, the same as the quadrants. There is a door-way to pass into the inner circle, and a pillar in the center, of the same height with the lower circle, having a hole in it, being the center of both circles, and seems to be a socket for an iron rod to be placed perpendicular into it. The divisions on these, as well as all the other instruments, will bear a nice examination with a pair of compasses.

Figure E is a smaller equinoctial Sun-dial, constructed upon the same principle as the large one A.

I cannot quit this subject without observing, that the Bramins, without the assistance of optical glasses, had nevertheless an advantage unexperienced by the observers of the more Northern climates. The serenity and clearness of the atmosphere in the night-time in the East Indies, except at the seasons of changing the monsoons or periodical winds, is difficult to express to those who have not seen it, because we have nothing in comparison to form our ideas upon: it is clear to perfection, a total quietude subsists, scarcely a cloud to be seen; and the light of the heavens, by the numerous appearance of the stars, affords a prospect both of wonder and contemplation.

This observatory at Benares is said to have been built by the order of the emperor ACKBAR; for as this wise prince endeavoured to improve the arts, so he wished also to recover the sciences of Hindostan, and therefore directed that three such places should be erected; one at Delhi, another at Agra, and the third at Benares.

Some doubts have arisen with regard to the certainty of the ancient Bramins having a knowledge in astronomy, and whether the Persians might not have introduced it into Hindostan when conquered by that people; but

but these doubts I think must vanish, when we know that the present Bramins pronounce, from the records and tables which have been handed down to them by their forefathers, the approach of the eclipses of the Sun and Moon, and regularly as they advance give timely information to the emperor and the princes in whose dominion they reside. There are yet some remains in evidence of their being at one time in possession of this science. The signs of the zodiac, in some of their Choultrys on the coast of Coromandel, as remarked by JOHN CALL, esq. F. R. S. in his letter to the Astronomer Royal, requires little other confirmation. Mr. CALL says, that as he was laying on his back, resting himself in the heat of the day, in a Choultry at Verdapetah in the Madura country, near Cape Commorin, he discovered the signs of the zodiac on the cieling of the Choultry: that he found one, equally compleat, which was on the cieling of a temple, in the middle of a Tank before the pagoda Teppecolum near Mindurah; and that he had often met with several parts in detached pieces. See *Philos. Trans.* 1772, p. 353. These buildings and temples were the places of residence and worship of the original Bramins, and bear the marks of great antiquity, having perhaps been built before the Persian conquest. Besides, when we know that the manners and customs of the *Gentoo* religion

religion are such as to preclude them from admitting the smallest innovation in their institutions; when we also know that their fashion in dress, and the mode of their living, have not received the least variation from the earliest account we have of them; it cannot be supposed they would engrave the symbolical figures of the Persian astronomy in their sacred temples; the signs of the zodiac must therefore have originated with them, if we credit their tradition of the purity of their religion and customs.

Mr. FRASER, in his History of the Mogul Emperors, speaking of time says, “ the Lunar year they reckon  
 “ 354 days, 22 gurris, 1 pull; the Solar year they  
 “ reckon 365 days, 15 gurris, 30 pulls,  $22\frac{1}{2}$  peels; 60  
 “ peels making 1 pull, 60 pulls 1 gurri, and 60 gurris  
 “ 1 day. This is according to the Bramins or Indian  
 “ priests, and what the Moguls and other Mahomme-  
 “ dans in India chiefly go by.”

Thus far Mr. FRASER; and it serves to strengthen the argument for supposing that the Bramins had a knowledge of astronomy before the introduction of Mahometanism into Hindostan.



Dimensions of the larger equinoctial Sun-dial, plates  
13. and 14.

			Feet.	In.
Length of the gnomon at the base <i>bb</i> ,			34	8
Oblique length of the gnomon <i>cc</i> ,	—	—	38	8
Radius of the quadrants <i>aa</i> ,	—	—	9	2
Height of the gnomon at <i>d</i> ,	—	—	22	3
Breadth of the quadrants <i>ff</i> ,	—	—	5	10
Thicknefs <i>gg</i> ,	—	—	1	0
Breadth of the gnomon <i>bb</i> ,	—	—	4	6
Whole extent of the instrument <i>ii</i> ,	—	—	37	4
Latitude of the place taken by double altitude	25° 10'.			

I am, &c.

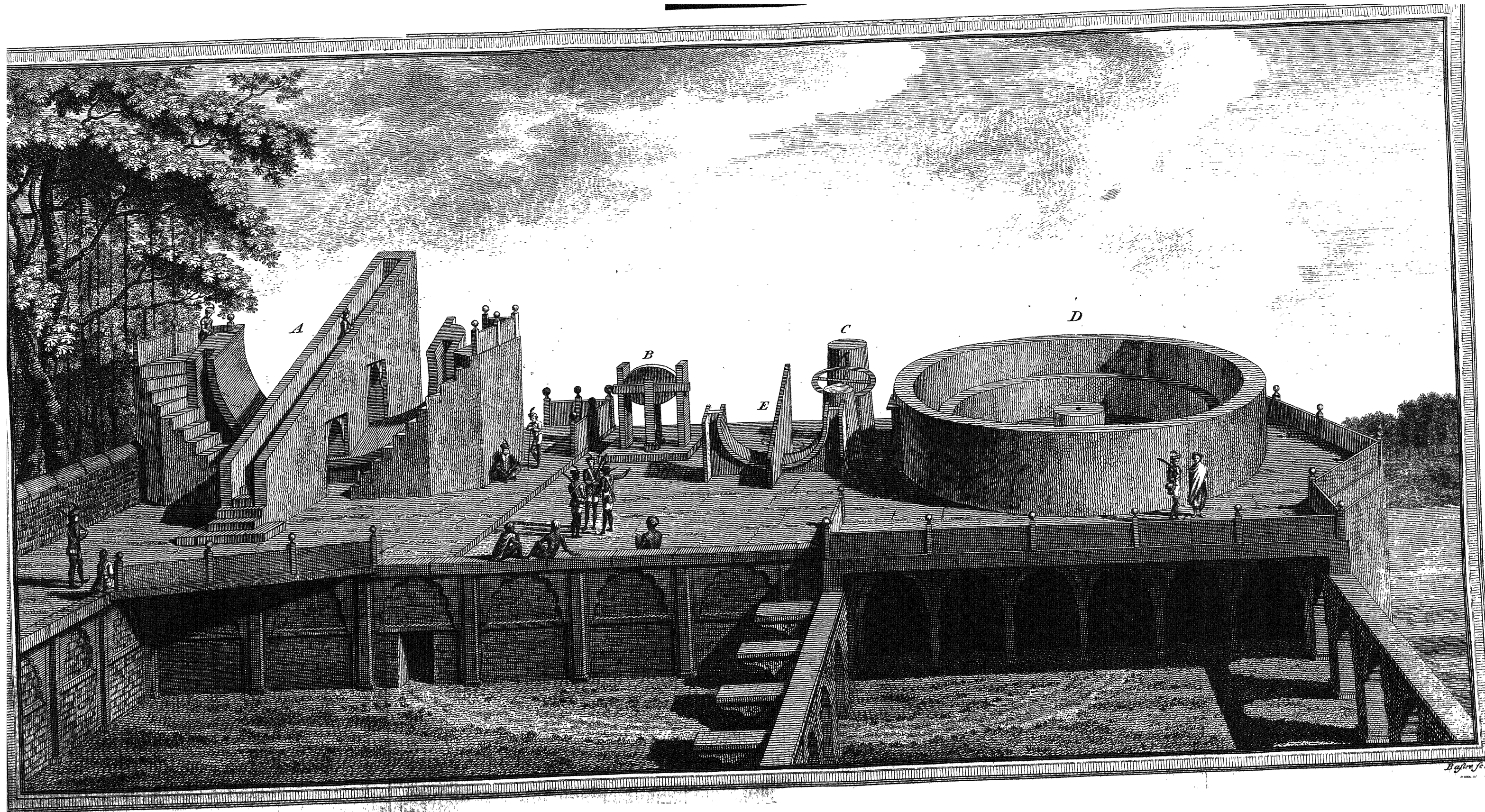


XXXI. *A short Account of Dr. Maty's Illness, and of the appearances in the dead Body, which was examined on the 3d of July, 1776, the Day after his Decease. By Dr. Hunter and Mr. Henry Watson, FF. R. S.*

Read May 1,  
1777. **A**BOUT two weeks before he died, he was taken with a fit of violent oppressive pain, just above the pit of the stomach, which made him feel as if he was very near dying. He was bled, and gradually recovered; yet so imperfectly, that any motion of his body, or any pressure upon that part with the point of a finger, instantly brought on such oppressive pain, that he was convinced the least addition to what he had several times felt, must have put an end to his life. He had an idea that there might be a collection of matter behind the sternum, which might be discharged by some surgical operation.

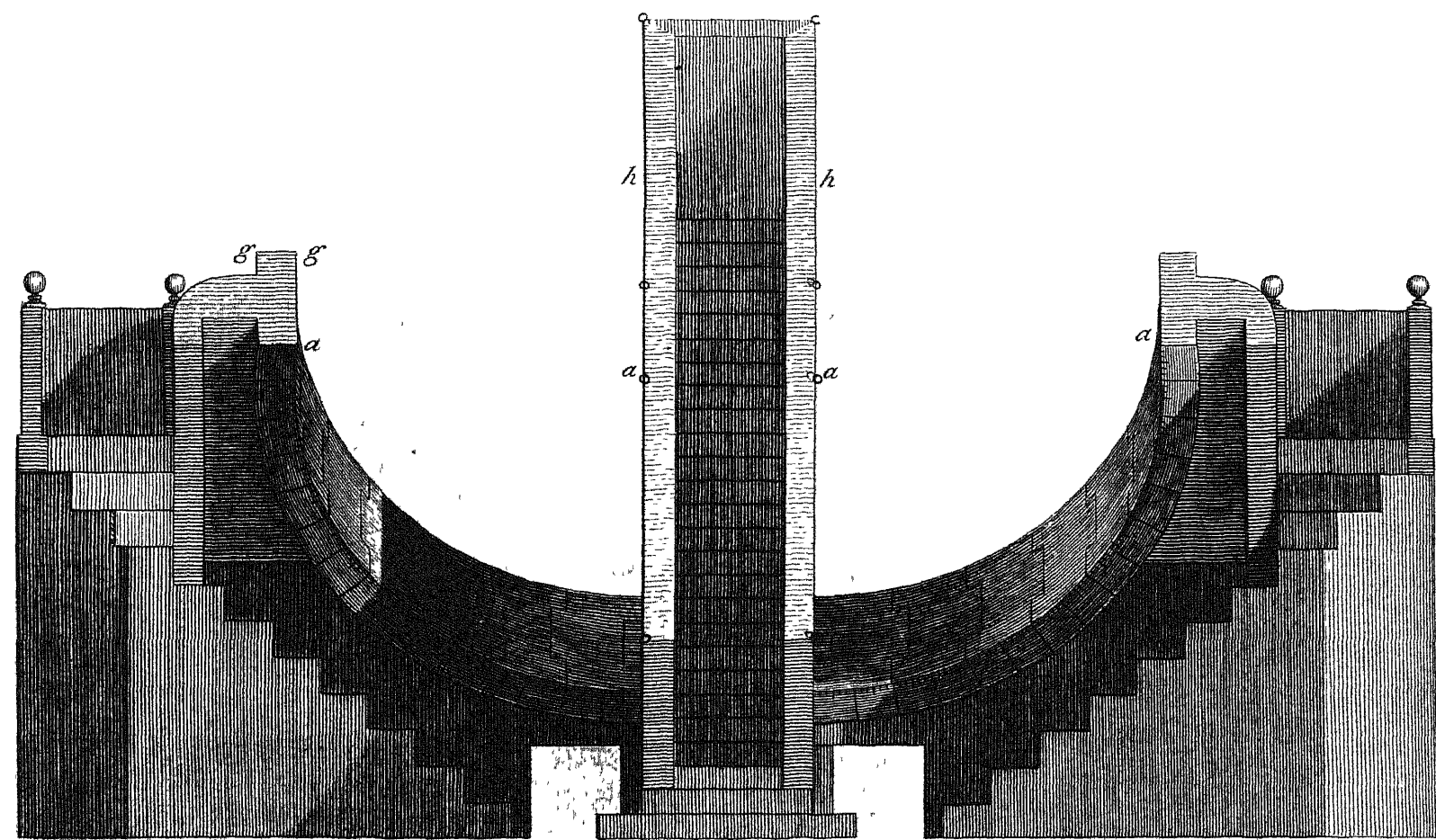
Upon examining the part, which with the whole body was very much emaciated, there was no protrusion or discolouration. All thoughts of making any perforation were laid aside; and it was thought probable, that there was some inflammation or adhesion of the pericardium



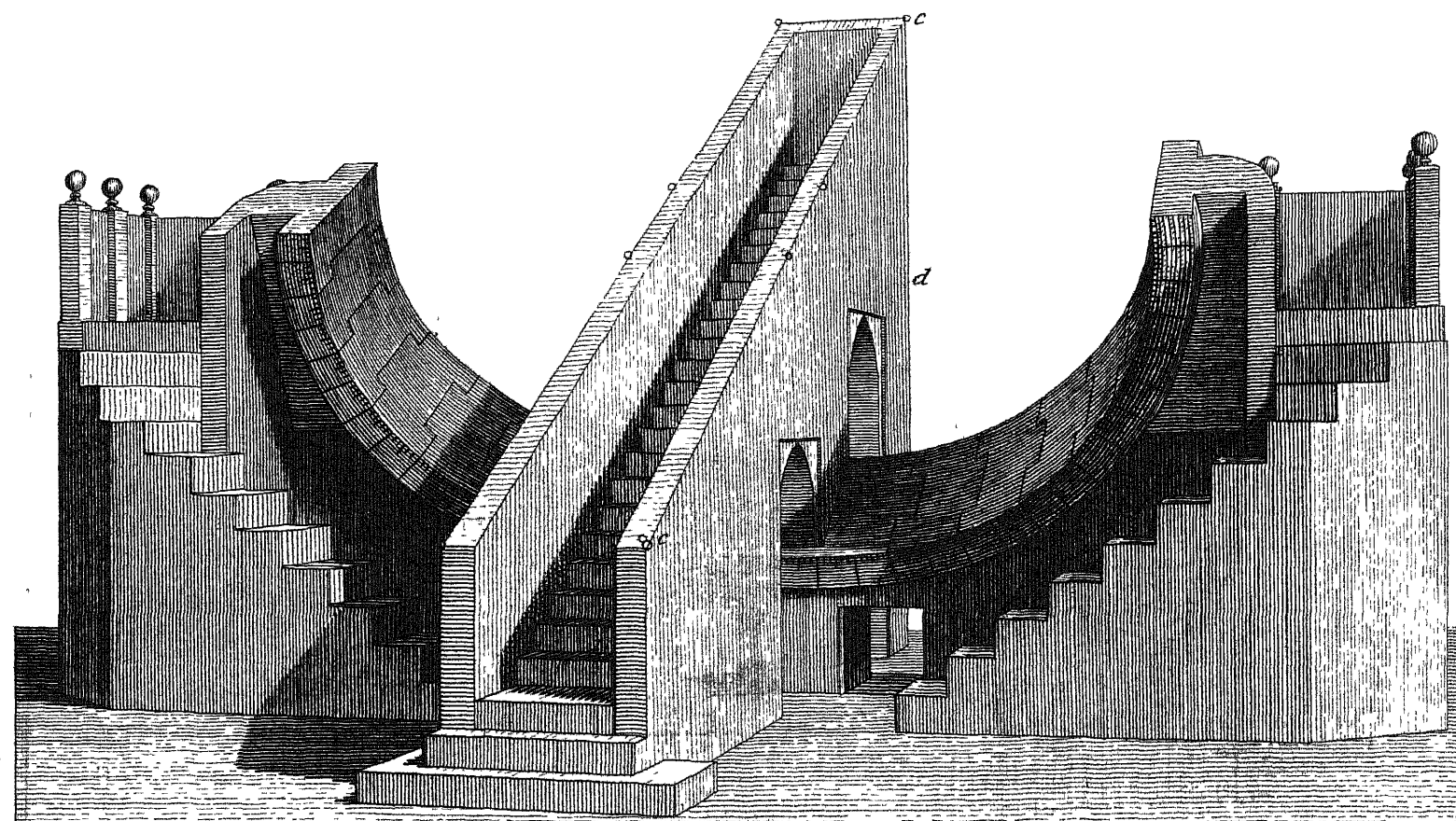




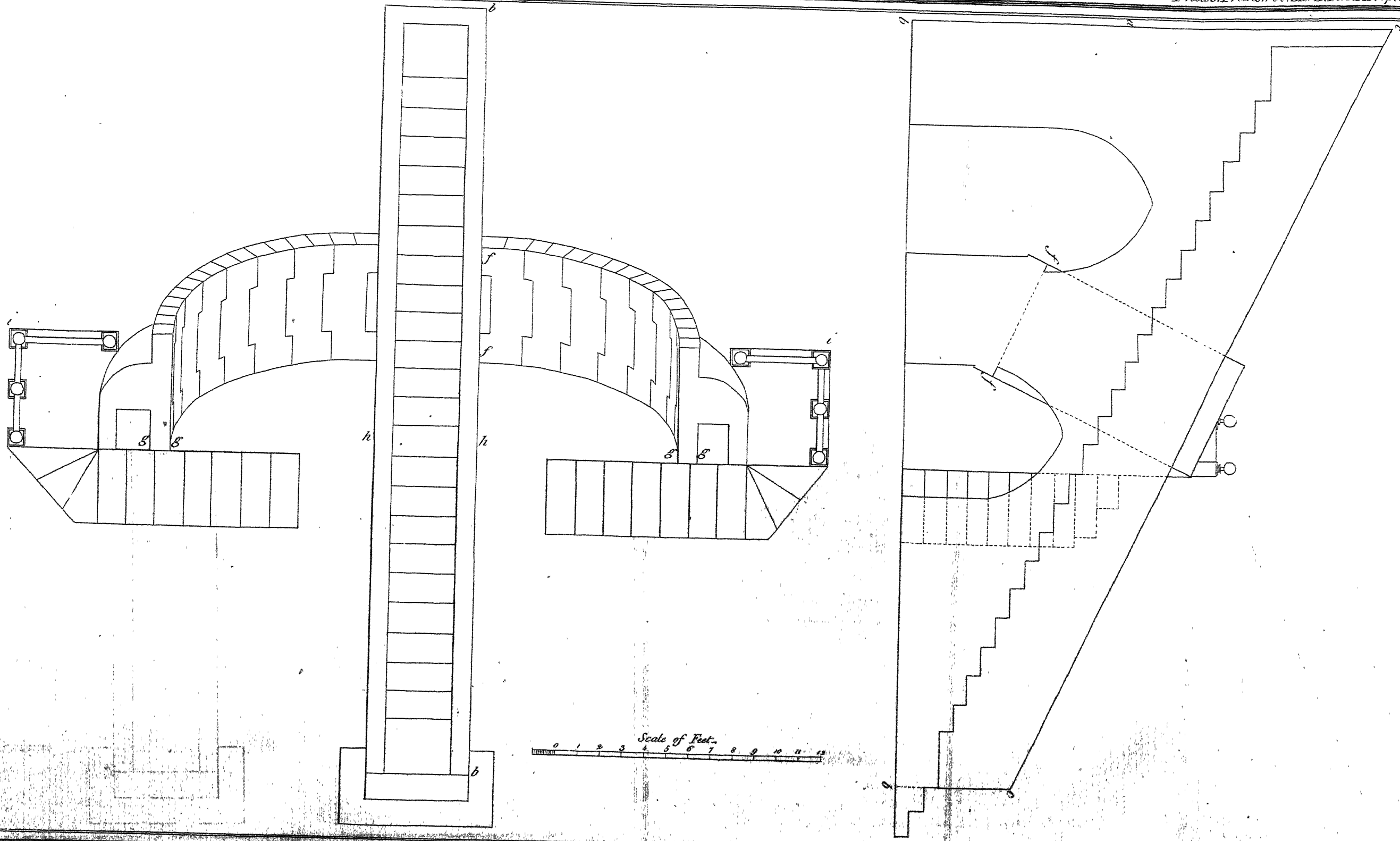




Scale of Feet.  
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12







Scale of Feet.  
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12







dium, or of the heart itself, at its anterior part, just above the diaphragm. His cough was almost incessant in the night since he had left off the use of opium, to which he had been long accustomed. For seven or eight years, he said, he believed he might have had twenty purging stools in every twenty-four hours, from a complaint in his bowels, the principal seat of which he pointed out so exactly in his emaciated state, that it was observed at the time it must be in the colon, where it passes down on the outside of the lower end of the left kidney. It was therefore thought probable that there was contraction with internal ulceration of the gut at that place: and about three years ago, with this complaint, which always continued in his bowels and left side, he had a fistula in ano; for which he was cut, and thereby cured of that disorder; but from that time, he was always sensible that the lower part of the rectum remained in an awkward, uneasy state, so that it was difficult and painful to pass a common glister-pipe into it.

His medical friends were of opinion, that no more could be done for him than to palliate, and to procure ease and sleep. He returned to his opium, of which he took one grain twice a day; and at times was thereby much relieved and comforted.

The heart and lungs were examined with great care, but there was hardly any appearance of disorder in either, contrary to what was expected.

The conjecture that had been formed about the complaint in the bowels proved to be perfectly just. The small intestines were apparently pretty sound; the cæcum and beginning of the colon were much distended with air, but not inflamed. The arch, or transverse turn of the colon, was likewise much distended, and its blood-vessels were so loaded, that there was, at first sight, the outward appearance of an internal inflammation. The enlarged part of the colon terminated at the lower end of the left kidney, where there was an annular stricture on the outside of the gut, and there the gut felt hard and fleshy. The enlarged part being slit up, was much inflamed and superficially ulcerated on the inside, and more in proportion towards the lower end. At the stricture there was but a very small passage left, winding irregularly through an inch and an half of hard ulcerated gut. Below this, where the colon passes over the psoas and iliac vessels, it was in its natural state; but the rectum had been at some former time very much diseased, and for a finger's length to within two inches of the anus was contracted to almost a goose-quill size, and of a livid colour. The lower two inches were not so much contracted,

tracted, but of the same livid colour, and the surface of the gut there was almost as unequal as the fasciculated surfaces in the heart; the effect, probably, of universal ulceration there, which had been a part of, or a companion to, the fistula, of which he had been cured by the operation; for, on that part, the villous coat of the intestine was destroyed.

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TO this account, more particularly of the two last weeks of Dr. MATY's illness, and of the appearances upon opening the body, as drawn up by Dr. HUNTER, I shall beg leave to add the few following remarks.

The heart and lungs were indeed neither of them essentially diseased; yet there was a whitish spot, about the breadth of a six-pence, upon the right ventricle of the heart, near its apex; a rough border on the left side of the diaphragm, as if the lungs had been glued to that part and torn off again; a partial adhesion of the lungs to the pleura; and a little purulent fluid within the pericardium. Certainly these were some signs of a slight inflammation having attacked the membranes investing the contents of the thorax. Neither can we suppose such appearances to have existed without occasioning some uneasiness: they were, perhaps, sufficient to account for

that great tendernefs and oppreffive pain which the doctor felt from the leaft preffure on the fternum, or upon any part of the breaft near it.

The principal feat of the difeafe which proved fo tedious, and in the end fo fatal, was, no doubt, confined to the colon only; and it was entirely within the gut. The part firft affected muft have been that portion of the canal in which we obferved the moft mifchief. The fuperficial extent of the difeafe over fo large a furface as the whole arch of the colon, and the more formidable appearance of it, in only a few inches of the fame gut, diftinguifhed the part where the difeafe firft began, and where it muft have had its longeft duration.

The caufe of all this mifchief was conjectural with Dr. MATY himfelf. Had it arifen, as he fufpected, from having bruifed his fide with the hilt of his fword, we then fhould have found the gut injured from without inwards. But is it not moft likely, that a little bit of bone, the ftone of fruit, fome fharp or hard body, in paffing, had injured the gut fo much, as to lay a foundation for all the growing complaints? Nearly the fame appearances have been obferved in the œfophagus from only a hard cruft of bread lodging for a time in the paffage; which, after being forced down, was fucceeded by great forenefs, inflammation, ulceration, and at length

so complete an obstruction, as to occasion the death of the patient; of which I once saw a very deplorable instance.

The ulcerated intestine is a disease generally, as in the case before us, slow in its progress, but certainly fatal. An accumulation of acrid matter, confined air, solid ingesta, in short any thing capable of stretching, irritating, or hardening the gut, will spread and increase the disease.

The fasciculated appearance in the rectum is what I have once met with in a very sound gut, where the villous coat was not in the least injured; it is therefore sometimes an original conformation, but apparently unnecessary, as the gut, we may presume, would perform its office much more agreeably without it.

H. WATSON.



XXXII. *An Account of some Experiments made with an Air-pump on Mr. Smeaton's Principle; together with some Experiments with a common Air-pump. By Mr. Edward Nairne, F. R. S.*

Read June 12,  
1777.

AS the following experiments were made principally to try the performance of Mr. SMEATON's pear-gage, it may be proper to describe it, which I shall do in his own words, taken from the Phil. Transf. for the years 1751 and 1752, vol. XLVII. p. 420.

“ I have found,” says Mr. SMEATON, “ the gages that  
 “ have been hitherto made use of, for measuring the  
 “ expansion of the air, very unfit to determine in an ex-  
 “ periment of so much nicety; I have therefore con-  
 “ trived one of a different sort, which measures the ex-  
 “ pansion with certainty to much less than the 1000th  
 “ part of the whole. It consists of a bulb of glass, some-  
 “ thing in the shape of a pear, and sufficient to hold  
 “ about



“ about half a pound of quicksilver: it is open at one  
“ end, and at the other is a tube, hermetically closed  
“ at the top. By the help of a nice pair of scales I found  
“ what proportion of weight a column of quicksilver, of  
“ a certain length, contained in the tube, bore to that  
“ which filled the whole vessel: by these means I was  
“ enabled to mark divisions upon the tube answering to  
“ a 1000th part of the whole capacity; which, being  
“ about one-tenth of an inch each, may, by estimation,  
“ be easily sub-divided into smaller parts. This gage,  
“ during the exhausting of the receiver, is suspended  
“ therein by a flip wire. When the pump is worked as  
“ much as shall be thought necessary, the gage is pushed  
“ down till the open end is immersed in a cistern of  
“ quicksilver placed underneath; the air being then let  
“ in, the quicksilver will be driven into the gage till the  
“ air remaining in it becomes of the same density with  
“ the external, and as the air always takes the highest  
“ place, the tube being uppermost, the expansion will be  
“ determined by the number of divisions occupied by  
“ the air at the top.

“ The degree to which I have been able to rarify the  
“ air in an experiment, has generally been about 1000  
“ times, when the pump is put clean together; but the

“ moisture

“moisture that adheres to the inside of the barrel as  
“well as other internal parts, upon letting in the air, is  
“in the same succeeding trials worked together with the  
“oil, which soon renders it so clammy as to obstruct  
“the actions of the pump upon a fluid so subtil as the  
“air when so much expanded; but in this case it seldom  
“fails to act upon the air in the receiver till it is ex-  
“panded 500 times.” Thus far Mr. SMEATON’S ac-  
count.

The pump with which the chief of the following experiments were made, had the leather of its piston soaked in oil and tallow (and oil in the barrel) and every precaution was taken that no water should get into the working parts of the pump, except what might arise in vapour from the substances which were under the receiver.

#### EXPERIMENT I.

Having provided a pear-gage agreeable to Mr. SMEATON’S description, on which the space of a 4000th part of the whole capacity was two-tenths of an inch; this gage, together with a glass cup which served as a cistern

to

to hold the quicksilver for it, was put under a receiver; which receiver was placed on a leather soaked in oil and tallow, on the plate of the pump.

I must observe here, that the foot of the glass cup, which held the quicksilver for the pear-gage, being broken off by an accident, another foot, made of a piece of box-wood, was cemented to it. The reason of mentioning this circumstance, which may seem trifling, will appear in the sixth experiment. The pump was then worked, and the pear-gage was pushed down till its open end was immersed in the quicksilver in the cup: the air being then let into the receiver, it forced the quicksilver into the gage till it was filled within a 4000th part of the whole, so that by this gage the pump appeared to have expanded the air 4000 times. To what it might be owing that this pump, which was on Mr. SMEATON's principle, should expand the air 4000 times instead of only 1000 as Mr. SMEATON's, I could not even surmise.

Having the pleasure of knowing Mr. SMEATON, and being well acquainted with his great abilities in practice as well as theory, I could not imagine that this apparent superiority could proceed from our having executed the various parts of the pump in a more perfect manner than

he had done. I therefore determined, for greater certainty, to see if the fault might not be in the gages; and for that purpose I repeated the experiment with the syphon-gage, and both the long and short barometer-gages, and found that the several degrees of exhaustion indicated by these, were very different from that which the pear-gage had indicated: no conclusion, therefore, could be drawn from this experiment.

I determined next to compare again this pear-gage with the long and short barometer-gages with all the accuracy I was master of: and first, lest the tubes of these barometer-gages might not be perfectly clean and free from moisture, I had some tubes made at the glass house; and as soon as they were brought home, which was within an hour after they were made, two of them, which were of the same size, were filled with distilled quicksilver; and then the quicksilver was carefully boiled in the tubes the whole length, which was about thirty-six inches: I then cut off about six inches from the sealed end of one of the tubes, and took care to keep it perfectly full of the boiled quicksilver; it was then inverted into a glass cistern containing boiled quicksilver; and a piece of very thin ivory, about half an inch in length, with divisions on its edge, was put over the tube, so as to float on the surface  
of

of the quicksilver in the cistern, by which means the difference of the two surfaces could be seen to a great nicety. This kind of gage is called the short barometer-gage.

The other tube, which was cut off to thirty-three inches, being perfectly full of the boiled quicksilver, was also carefully inverted into a glass cistern containing boiled quicksilver, to such a depth that from the surface of the quicksilver in the cistern to the top of the tube was twenty-nine inches; this had likewise a piece of ivory, with divisions on it, put over the tube, so as to float on the surface of the quicksilver in the cistern, in the same manner as the other.

This long tube and the short barometer-gage being put both of them at the same time under the receiver, which was carefully cemented to the plate of the pump; the pump was then worked for ten minutes, and the surface of the quicksilver in both the tubes came down very nearly to within one-twentieth or five hundredth parts of an inch of the surface of the quicksilver in their respective cisterns.

The air was then let in, and the receiver being taken from the pump, the long tube was raised up so far in the cistern as to let the quicksilver come down from the top of the tube, so that it now became a common barometer,

and its height from the surface of the quicksilver in the cistern measured thirty inches; which agreed exactly with an open cistern-barometer I had in the room. The quicksilver in the tube of this barometer was also boiled, and the measure the same.

The quicksilver was then emptied out of this long tube, and the sealed end being cut off, it was then cemented to a piece of brass, by which means it was screwed to the air-pump; and the lower end being immersed in a cup of boiled quicksilver, it then made that kind of gage where the air is taken from the top of the tube, and which is called the long barometer-gage. This gage being fixed to the pump, and the short barometer-gage put on the plate of the pump under a receiver, the receiver was cemented to the plate of the pump, and the pump worked for ten minutes as before. The quicksilver in the short barometer-gage fell now nearly to within one-twentieth or five hundredth parts of an inch of that in the cistern, and the quicksilver in the long gage rose nearly to within a twentieth or five hundredth parts of an inch of the height it was at when it was made as a common barometer.

Gages made with these precautions seem to me to be the most to be depended upon, in determining the actual diminution

diminution of the pressure on the surface of the quicksilver in the tube of the long gage, and also on the surface of the quicksilver in the cistern of the short gage. But of these two gages the long barometer-gage was chiefly used in the following experiments, as being fixed to the pump: however, having now made these two gages with as much accuracy as I was master of, and finding that they agreed pretty nearly, I proceeded to repeat my first experiment.

## EXPERIMENT II.

I put the short barometer-gage, and the pear-gage with the glass cup having a wooden foot, both together under the receiver, which receiver was placed on a leather soaked in oil and tallow on the plate of the pump; the pump was then worked for ten minutes, and the quicksilver was brought down in the short barometer-gage to about one-tenth of an inch of the surface of the quicksilver in the cistern, and rose in the long barometer-gage to within one-tenth of an inch of the height of the quicksilver in my standard barometer, which was at that time at thirty inches; by which it appeared, that  
the

the pressure on the surface of the quicksilver in the cistern, and in the tube of the long barometer-gage, was diminished to about a three-hundredth part: the pear-gage being now pushed down till its open end was immersed under the surface of the quicksilver in the cup, the air was then let in, and the pump appeared by that gage to have exhausted all but a six thousandth part of the air; or, in other words, the degree of exhaustion by this gage appeared to be six thousand times.

Finding still this disagreement between the pear-gage and the other gages, I tried a variety of experiments; but none of them appeared to me satisfactory, till one day in April 1776, shewing an experiment with one of these pumps to the honourable HENRY CAVENDISH, Mr. SMEATON, and several other gentlemen of the Royal Society, when the two gages differed some thousand times from one another, Mr. CAVENDISH accounted for it in the following manner. "It appeared," he said, "from some experiments of his father's, Lord CHARLES CAVENDISH, that water, whenever the pressure of the atmosphere on it is diminished to a certain degree, is immediately turned into vapour, and is as immediately turned back again into water on restoring the pressure. This degree of pressure is different according to the heat of the water: when the heat is 72° of FAH-

"RENHEIT'S



“ RENNHEIT’s scale, it turns into vapour as soon as the  
“ pressure is no greater than that of three quarters of an  
“ inch of quicksilver, or about one-fortieth of the usual  
“ pressure of the atmosphere; but when the heat is only  
“ 41°, the pressure must be reduced to that of a quarter  
“ of an inch of quicksilver before the water turns into  
“ vapour. It is true, that water exposed to the open air  
“ will evaporate at any heat, and with any pressure of  
“ the atmosphere; but that evaporation is entirely owing  
“ to the action of the air upon it: whereas the evapora-  
“ tion here spoken of is performed without any assistance  
“ from the air. Hence it follows, that when the receiver  
“ is exhausted to the above-mentioned degree, the mois-  
“ ture adhering to the different parts of the machine  
“ will turn into vapour and supply the place of the air,  
“ which is continually drawn away by the working of  
“ the pump, so that the fluid in the pear-gage, as well as  
“ that in the receiver, will consist in good measure of va-  
“ pour. Now letting the air into the receiver, all the  
“ vapour within the pear-gage will be reduced to water,  
“ and only the real air will remain uncondensed; conse-  
“ quently the pear-gage shews only how much real air  
“ is left in the receiver, and not how much the pressure  
“ or spring of the included fluid is diminished, whereas  
“ the

“ the common gages shew how much the pressure of  
 “ the included fluid is diminished, and that equally,  
 “ whether it consist of air or of vapour.”

Mr. CAVENDISH having explained so satisfactorily the cause of the disagreement between the two gages, I considered, that, if I were to avoid moisture as much as possible, the two gages should nearly agree: this induced me to make the following experiment.

### EXPERIMENT III.

The plate of the pump being made as clean and as dry as possible, there was then put on it the before-mentioned short barometer-gage, also the pear-gage with a cistern entirely of glass which held the quick-silver; they were then covered with a receiver, round the outside of which was laid a cement which perfectly excluded the outward air; every part, before it was put under the receiver, as well as the receiver itself, being made as clean and as free from moisture as possible<sup>(a)</sup>. The pump was then worked for ten minutes,

(a) It may be proper here to take notice, that the pump in every experiment hereafter mentioned was worked ten minutes, and the same receiver continued cemented to the pump-plate, except where it is otherwise mentioned. The top part of this receiver was made to open, in order to put in different things,

and the barometer-gages indicated a degree of exhaustion nearly 600; the air was then let into the receiver, the pear-gage indicated a degree of exhaustion, but very little more than 600 also. The near agreement of the pear-gage with the barometer-gages in this last experiment, in which I had been so careful to exclude the moisture as much as possible, seemed to prove beyond a doubt, that their disagreeing in the first and second experiments must have been owing (as Mr. CAVENDISH supposed) to the moisture which in them had not been so carefully excluded. But I began now to suspect also, that there might arise a vapour from some moisture that might be contained in the leather soaked in oil and tallow, or in the wooden foot which was cemented to the glass cup, both used in the first and second experiments: these suspicions induced me to try the following experiments.

#### EXPERIMENT IV.

A piece of leather dressed in allum, known by the name of white sheep-skin, of about four inches diameter, which had been soaked in oil and tallow about a year ago (such as was used to place the receiver on in the first and second experiments) was put into the receiver; the

pump was then worked, and the barometer-gage indicated a degree of exhaustion of nearly 300; but on the admission of the air the pear-gage indicated a degree of exhaustion of 4000.

#### EXPERIMENT V.

The piece of leather being taken out, the pump was then worked, and the degree of exhaustion appeared by both the barometer and pear-gages to be about 600, as in the third experiment.

#### EXPERIMENT VI.

A cylinder made of a piece of box wood (which I had kept by me for more than a year) one inch in diameter and three inches in length, was put into the receiver (this piece of wood was of the same kind as that which was cemented to the foot of the glass cup used in the first and second experiments) the pump was then worked, and the degree of exhaustion appeared by the barometer-gage to be 300, but by the pear-gage 16,000.

These experiments have often been repeated, but the result was seldom the same. When leather soaked in oil and tallow has been put into the receiver, the pear-gage has sometimes indicated a degree of exhaustion of

20,000,

20,000, and sometimes no more than 500; it likewise differs very much with the box wood, which may perhaps be owing to different degrees of heat and moisture.

From these experiments it is evident, that there arises an elastic vapour from the leather dressed in allum and soaked in oil and tallow, and also from the piece of box wood, when the weight of the atmosphere has been partly taken off by the action of the pump; and that this vapour presses upon the surface of the quicksilver in the tube of the long barometer-gage, and of that in the cistern of the short one; and that, consequently, the testimony of both these gages must be influenced by this vapour, as well as by the small remainder of common air: but as it is the nature of the pear-gage not to give its testimony till the remaining air contained in it is pressed, so as to become of the same density of the atmosphere; and as this vapour cannot subsist in the form of vapour under that pressure, this gage is not at all influenced by it, but indicates the remaining quantity of permanent air only.

Seeing thus what a considerable quantity of vapour arose from the compound of leather, allum, oil, and tallow, my next object was to find out from which of those substances it chiefly arose; how far I have succeeded will appear by the following experiments.

Substances put into the receiver.	Weight when put into the receiver.	Degree of exhaustion according to	
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
EXP. VII. Tallow, — —	2 ounces	431	600
EXP. VIII. Oil, — —	2 ounces	377	480
EXP. IX. Allum, — —	2 ounces	378	580
EXP. X. A piece of leather as it came from the leather-fellers, — —	100 grains	152	100,000.
EXP. XI. The same piece of leather soaked in the same two ounces of tallow and oil melted together, — —		432	800

From these experiments it appears, that the elastic vapour which caused so great a difference in the testimony of the gages, arose principally from the leather, and but little from the tallow, oil, or allum: it even appears by the tenth experiment, that it came from the leather, and supplied the place of the exhausted air so fast, that I could not (at least in the ten minutes) make the barometer-gage indicate a degree of exhaustion of of more than 159.

To determine whether it was the moisture in the leather from which the vapour arose, I made the following experiments.

Substances put into the receiver.	Weight when put into the receiver.	Degrees of exhaustion according to		Variation in weight during the experiments.
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.	
EXP. XII. A piece of white leather, fresh from the leather-fellers, — — —	100 grains	134	100,000	lost 2 grains.
EXP. XIII. The same piece of leather, dried by the fire till it would lose no more of its weight, — — —	80 grains	268	280	gained 2 grs.
EXP. XIV. The same piece of leather held in the steam of hot water till it had regained the 20 grains it had been deprived of, — — —	100 grains	147	100,000	lost 2 grains.

In this last experiment it was full three quarters of an hour before the leather regained the twenty grains of weight, although it was held very near the surface of the hot water.

Whenever I have asserted, that the degree of exhaustion, according to the pear-gage, was so great as 100,000, I only guessed it to be thereabouts, for my gage is not graduated to more than 4000; but, that it may be seen what reason I had to suppose it at 100,000, I have brought my pear-gage filled in this last experiment, for the inspection of the gentlemen present.

#### EXPERIMENT XV.

The same piece of leather used in the eleventh experiment was put into a damp cellar, where it was left till the

the next day; it was then put again into the receiver, and the degree of exhaustion, according to the barometer-gage, was 300, and according to the pear-gage 3500.

Being now perfectly satisfied that the variation in the testimony of the pear and barometer-gages was occasioned by the moisture contained in the substances I had put into the receiver assuming the form of vapour; I determined next to try what would be the effect of the vapour which might arise from small quantities of different fluids, and from some other substances containing moisture of various kinds.

Substances put into the receiver.	Weight when put in.	Degree of exhausting according to		Change in weight during the experiment.
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.	
EXP. XVI. Water in a watch-glass,	3 grains	148	24,000	lost $1\frac{1}{2}$ grain.
EXP. XVII. Water in a glass cup, diameter two inches, —	100 grains	89	8000	lost 2 grains.
EXP. XVIII. Spirit of wine in the same cup, —	100 grains	54	6000	lost 9 grains.
EXP. XIX. Vitriolic acid, —	100 grains	340	220	gained 1 gr.
EXP. XX. A piece of the inside of a china orange with some of the rind, —	100 grains	160	100,000	lost $2\frac{1}{2}$ grs.
EXP. XXI. A piece of the inside of an onion, —	100 grains	160	100,000	lost $1\frac{1}{2}$ grain.
EXP. XXII. A piece of tainted beef,	100 grains	152	100,000	lost $2\frac{1}{2}$ grs.
EXP. XXIII. A piece of fresh beef,	100 grains	136	100,000	lost $2\frac{1}{2}$ grs.
EXP. XXIV. Spirit of turpentine,	100 grains	301	1800	lost 2 grains.
EXP. XXV. Pearl-ash, —	2 ounces.	118	5000	
EXP. XXVI. The same pearl-ash made very hot, —		198	420	
EXP. XXVII. A lighted candle held in the receiver till it went out, — —		297	1800	

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Substances put into the receiver.	Weight when put in.	Degrees of exhausting according to		Change in weight during the experiment.
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.	
EXP. XXVIII. A piece of charcoal,		129	1800	
EXP. XXIX. The receiver heated by holding several pieces of lighted charcoal in it, and then the above piece being thoroughly lighted was put into the receiver, and the pump worked, —		650	600	
EXP. XXX. Camphire, —	100 grains	304	520	{ lost barely $\frac{1}{2}$ a grain.
EXP. XXXI. Sulphur made to burn on a piece of brass, —		247	320	

Observing by these experiments that the small quantity of moisture which exhaled from the substances under the receiver prevented the pump from exhausting it to any very considerable degree, I began to suspect that whenever wet leather had been used to connect the receiver with the plate, there must have risen so great a quantity of vapour as to have prevented the degree of exhaustion from being near so great as in some of the foregoing instances. These suspicions induced me to make the following experiments.

	Degrees of exhaustion according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
EXP. XXXII. The receiver was taken off, and after the cement was wiped clean from it, and every part made perfectly dry, it was put again on the pump-plate, and a little oil only was poured round the outside edge,	nearly 600	full 600
EXP. XXXIII. The receiver was taken off again, and instead of the oil it was set on a piece of leather, which had been soaked two days in water, —	51	16,000
EXP. XXXIV. The last experiment repeated with the same piece of leather, — —	51	1500
EXP. XXXV. The last experiment repeated again with the same piece of leather, — —	51	1000
EXP. XXXVI. The receiver was taken off, and instead of the leather soaked in water, there was put on a piece of the same sort of leather, soaked in a mixture of water and spirit of wine, such as Mr. SMEATON used,	47	12,000
EXP. XXXVII. The last experiment repeated with the same leather, — — —	47	1150
EXP. XXXVIII. The last experiment repeated again with the same leather, — —	47	500

The great difference in the testimony of the pear-gage in these six last experiments appeared to me exceedingly astonishing, for the leathers seemed each of them to be as moist at last as at first.

By these experiments I was convinced how effectually the use of leather soaked in water, or in water and spirit of wine, prevents the pump from exhausting to any considerable degree. I have made a number of experiments of the same kind as these; but have never been able to exhaust, under such circumstances, to a greater degree than between 50 and 60, when the heat of the room was

3

about

about  $57^{\circ}$  by a thermometer of FAHRENHEIT's scale: but the following experiments will shew how much some different degrees of heat affect the degree of exhaustion,

	Height of the Therm.	Degrees of exhaustion according to	
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
EXP. XXXIX. Receiver set on leather which had lain all night in water, —	46	84	20,000
EXP. XL. Receiver set on a leather soaked all night in two parts water and one of spirit of wine, — — —	46	76	8000

The pump having been put in a room of the heat of  $57^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT's scale for seven hours together, with the leathers put in the same water and the same spirit of wine and water which they had been soaked in all night, and which had been used in the two last experiments, the following experiments were made.

	Height of the Therm.	Degree of exhaustion according to	
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
EXP. XLI. The receiver set on the leather soaked in water, — —	57	56	16,000
EXP. XLII. Receiver placed on a leather soaked in water and spirit of wine, —	57	49	1200

The following table will shew the comparative excellency between the pump on Mr. SMEATON's principle with which the chief of these experiments have been

tried, and one of my common double barreled table air-pumps under the same circumstances. The leather on the pistons of both was soaked in oil and tallow, and the receiver cemented down to each plate; the pumps were both of them fresh oiled.

	Pump on Mr. SMEATON'S principle. Degrees of exhaustion according to		Common pump. Degrees of exhaustion according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear- gage.	Barom. gage.	Pear- gage.
EXP. XLIII. A piece of leather, weighing 100 grains, as it came from the leather-fellers, was put into the receiver of each pump, both pieces being cut from the same skin close by each other, —	152	100,000	108	12,000
EXP. XLIV. The same pieces of leather dried by the fire till they would lose no more of their weight, — —	506	520	160	165

The following experiments will shew the effect of water used in the barrels of pumps to make the pistons move air tight in them.

I took the same common air-pump used in the last experiment, and having taken off the leathers soaked in oil and tallow from the pistons of this pump, and wiped the barrels as clean as possible, I then put new leathers, which had been soaked in water, and new bladder valves; the receiver was then cemented to the pump-plate as before.

	Degrees of exhaustion according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
EXP. XLV. The pump was then worked as usual, —	37	38
EXP. XLVI. The last experiment repeated with another common pump, the leathers of the pistons of which were also soaked in water, — — }	34	37

From these experiments it evidently appears, that the air-pump of OTTO GUERICKE, and those contrived by Mr. GRATORIX, and Dr. HOOKE, and the improved one by Mr. PAPPIN, both used by Mr. BOYLE, also HAUKS-BEE'S, S'GRAVESANDE'S, MUCHENBROOK'S, and those of all who have used water in the barrels of their pumps, could never have exhausted to more than between 40 and 50, if the heat of the place was about 57; and although Mr. SMEATON, with his pump, where no water was in the barrel, but where leather soaked in a mixture of water and spirit of wine was used to fet the receiver on the pump-plate, may have exhausted all but a thousandth or even a ten thousandth part of the common air, according to the testimony of his pear-gage; yet so much vapour must have arisen from the wet leather, that the contents of the receiver could never be less than a seventieth or eightieth part of the density of the atmosphere: nevertheless, it does not seem that any deficiency in the construction of Mr. SMEATON'S pump was the cause of his

not being able to exhaust beyond the low degrees of 70 or 80. Had he been aware of the bad effects of setting the receiver upon leather soaked in water and spirit of wine; and had he made use of the precaution to free all parts of his pump as much as possible from moisture, I make not the least doubt but the air-pump, which he executed himself, would have exhausted to as great a degree, as that pump has been seen to have done with which the chief of these experiments were made.

Having read the principal part of this paper to Mr. SMEATON, and shewn him some of the experiments; one in particular, where the pear-gage, as he observed himself, was filled to no less than 100,000th part of the whole content; he remarked from memory, that he had in several trials exceeded 1000 times, and once, as he remembered, near or about 10,000 times; but as he never could account how this happened, which appeared to him perfectly accidental, and therefore could not depend upon doing it at pleasure, he contented himself with putting down 1000 times, as being what (under the circumstances mentioned in his papers) he had a tolerable certainty of.

I must here again observe, that if we only wish to know the quantity of permanent air remaining in the receiver after it is as much exhausted as possible,

ble, it seems, that it is by Mr. SMEATON's gage only that we can know it. Again, when by the assistance of his gage and the barometer-gage together, we have discovered that there is a vapour which arises and occupies the place of the permanent air which is exhausted, it seems that it is by the means of his gage only that we can discover what part of the remaining contents of the receiver consists of this vapour, and what part of permanent air.

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*An account of some further experiments made with the same air-pump on Mr. SMEATON's principle, the results of which were different from the former.*

AFTER I had made the foregoing experiments, and thought to have done with the subject (for some time at least) in reviewing them for the last time, I perceived one or two, the extraordinary results of which (though not unnoticed by me before) I now thought I had not paid sufficient attention to. Experiment the 19th (in which I found that when vitriolic acid was put into the receiver, and the pump worked for the usual time, the pear-gage indicated a much less degree of exhaustion than the barometer-

barometer-gage) seemed to me now so surprizing, that it was impossible not to wish to repeat this experiment with all the care possible, and to endeavour to recollect all the circumstances which I thought could any way influence the result.

The vitriolic acid I made use of in the following experiments was some that I had had by me for some time; it had been kept in a phial, stopp'd with a glass-stopper, and tied over with a bladder. The thermometer in the room was at  $59^{\circ}$ , and the weather remarkably dry.

	Weight when put into the receiver.	Degrees of exhaustion according to		Variation of weight during the experiment.
		Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.	
EXP. XLVII. Vitriolic acid in a glass cup, two inches diameter, }	100 grains	602	380	gained 1 gr.
EXP. XLVIII. The last experiment repeated with the same vitriolic acid in the same cup, }	101 grains	502	350	gained $\frac{1}{2}$ a gr.
EXP. XLIX. The former experiment repeated again with the same vitriolic acid in the same cup, — — }	101 $\frac{1}{2}$ grs.	502	350	
EXP. L. The former experiment repeated the fourth time in every respect as before, }	101 $\frac{1}{2}$ grs.	502	340 +	{ gained a $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain.

The generation of vapour in the exhausted receiver which Mr. CAVENDISH had supposed, and which I seemed, by my former experiments, to have proved, appeared satisfactorily to have accounted for the pear-gage's



gage's indicating a greater degree of exhaustion than the barometer-gage: but what to suppose could possibly make it indicate a less, I was entirely at a loss; for after having made these surprizing experiments on the vitriolic acid, I wished once more to try if I could repeat, with the same result, some of my former experiments, in which the pear-gage had indicated so nearly the same degree of exhaustion as the barometer-gages. Accordingly I took away the vitriolic acid from under the receiver; the pump was then fresh oiled, and I was very careful to wipe clean and dry the receiver and pump-plate, and then cemented down the receiver as usual.

#### EXPERIMENT LI.

The pump was then worked, and the degree of exhaustion appeared by the barometer-gage to be 432; but by the pear-gage to be but 370.

I know of no circumstance attending this experiment that differed from those in which my former experiments were made when the gages agreed so nearly, unless it were that of the weather: I recollect that it was then very damp, and now it had been very dry for some time. How this circumstance could make so great an alteration in the result of these experiments, I cannot pretend

tend to say; but some of the following experiments will shew that the pear-gage still continued in many cases to indicate a less degree of exhaustion than the barometer-gage.

In all the preceding experiments the pump was worked for ten minutes, and the pear-gage was at the end of that time pushed down so as for the mouth to be immersed in the cistern of quicksilver, and the air then let in according to the manner of using this gage; but now that I found that the testimony of this gage so seldom agreed with that of the barometer-gage, I wished to try, whether they might not agree when the receiver was exhausted only in part, though they did not when it was exhausted as much as possible. For this purpose I had the same receiver fitted with two pear-gages, so that I now could immerse the mouth of one of them in the cistern of quicksilver when I had exhausted the receiver in part only, and not immerse the mouth of the other till the receiver was exhausted for the usual time of ten minutes; in which time I found I could always raise the quicksilver in the barometer-gage as high as if I were to work the pump much longer.

	Degrees of exhaustion when the pump had been worked			
	Five minutes; according to		Ten minutes; according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear- gage.	Barom. gage.	Pear- gage.
EXP. LII. The receiver cemented to the pump-plate, —	430	300	430	360
EXP. LIII. The receiver unce- mented, wiped clean from the cement, and put on the pump-plate, with a little oil round the outside, —	502	360	502	360
EXP. LIV. The receiver put on a leather soaked in oil and tallow,	502	320	323	500

This last experiment seemed very extraordinary; for after having worked the pump for five minutes only, the barometer-gage indicated a degree of exhaustion of 502; but by working the pump five minutes more, it indicated a less degree of exhaustion, *viz.* 323. This effect I have observed to happen more than once.

	Degrees of exhaustion when the pump had been worked			
	Five minutes; according to		Ten minutes; according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear- gage.	Barom. gage.	Pear- gage.
EXP. LV. Receiver put on a leather soaked in water for one night,	47	380	63	8000
EXP. LVI. Receiver put on a leather soaked for one night in a mixture of two parts water and one spi- rit of wine, — —	48	300	50	1200

The receiver was then taken off from the pump-plate, and a blank screw screwed into the hole in the pump-plate.

EXPERIMENT LVII.

The pump was then worked for ten minutes without any receiver on the pump-plate. The barometer-gage alone being afterwards connected with it, the gage indicated a degree of exhaustion of 50 only, which was the same as in the last experiment; so that the bad effects of the mixture of the spirit of wine and water still continued.

I then poured about two spoonfuls of oil down the hole in the pump-plate, and the pistons were worked gently till most of the oil had passed through the pump into a reservoir made to receive it. A blank screw was then screwed into the hole in the pump-plate as before, and after the pump had been worked for a minute or two, four or five times, the air being let in between each time, the oil had then washed so much of the moisture out of the inside of the pump, that I was now able to exhaust to 430 instead of only 50 times, as before the oil had been made to pass through it.

During the course of these experiments on the air-pump it appeared, by the testimony of the pear and baro-

meter-gages, that the remaining contents of a receiver, when exhausted as much as possible, was at different times of different kinds; sometimes it seemed to consist entirely of permanent air, as when a little vitriolic acid, &c. was put in the receiver; and sometimes mostly of vapour arising from moisture, and but a very small proportion of permanent air, as when a bit of damp leather, &c. was in the receiver. I was now therefore desirous of seeing what appearance the electric matter would exhibit in these different rarified media.

For this purpose I had a glass tube made, of an inch bore, and four feet and a half in length. This tube was connected to the receiver of the air-pump by means of an elbow-piece of brass, to which it was cemented; which elbow-piece was inserted perpendicularly in the top of the receiver: as the elbow made a right angle, the tube itself was of course horizontal.

Moreover, at that end of the glass tube which was cemented to the brass elbow-piece, there was fixed, on the inside, a piece of brass wire, about three inches and a half long, filed to a point, and pointing towards the other end of the tube. At the other end of the tube was cemented a brass screw fitted to a brass cap, which screwed on it; and in this brass cap was fixed a brass wire, three inches and a half long, which pointed towards

the brass point; at the other end of the tube, and at the end of this wire, was a brass ball, eight-tenths of an inch diameter.

The brass cap at this extremity of the tube which is farthest from the receiver was made round, and placed so as to be in contact with the prime conductor of an electrical machine.

I now first put some vitriolic acid into the receiver, as a means of being able to make the remaining contents of the receiver, when exhausted as much as possible, to consist of permanent air only, unadulterated with vapour; and as the receiver was the same I had used in my foregoing experiments, there were two pear-gages fitted to it, which pear-gages I pushed down into the cisterns of quicksilver at different times, and the pump was worked as in my former experiments for ten minutes: heat of the room  $59^{\circ}$ .

The electrical machine was worked during the whole of the experiments.

EXPERIMENT LVIII.

Electrical appearances exhibited.	Degrees of exhaustion according to.	
	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
Light began first to appear in flashes, — —	5	
Light appeared the whole length of the tube in strizæ,	8	
Tube was filled with an uniform body of pale light,	74	75.
The pump had now been worked five minutes.		
The pump was then worked five minutes more.		
The tube was still filled with a uniform body of pale light, — — — — }	269	230

The conductor being then removed to a distance from the tube, it was made to approach it by degrees till a spark struck it, which was at the distance of two inches; the light in the tube now appeared like a compact body of fire, of a vivid purple colour, tending to a red.

Objects were seen through the tube when filled with this body of the electrical light, no less distinctly than if there had been no such light in the tube<sup>(a)</sup>.

The vitriolic acid being taken out of the receiver, I put a piece of leather of 100 grains, as it came from the leather-fellers, into that end of the tube which was next to the conductor of the electrical machine, and farthest from the receiver of the air-pump. I put the leather in

(a) This circumstance has been before remarked by Dr. HAMILTON in his conjectures on the tails of comets.

at this end of the tube rather than into the receiver, to be sure that the tube might be filled with the vapour arising from the damp leather rather than with the common air. The pump and electrical machine were then worked as before.

## E X P E R I M E N T LIX.

Electrical appearances.	Degrees of exhaustion according to	
	Barom. gage.	Pear-gage.
Light began first to appear in flashes, — —	12	100
Light appeared the whole length of the tube in striae,	22	
Light vanished scarce to be seen, — — —	90	
The pump had now been worked seven minutes. The conductor was now removed from the tube, and the greatest striking distance was found to be one inch,		
The tube now appeared luminous, but the light was faint and white. The conductor was then again put in contact with the tube, and the machine worked: the pump was also worked for three minutes more, but scarce any light appeared, — —	148	20,000

The conductor was then again removed from the tube, and the striking distance was found to be only one inch and four-tenths: the tube at the time of striking was luminous as before, and the light was of the same faint white colour.

Having lately received from my friend Dr. LIND some æther prepared by the ingenious Mr. WOLFE, I was very desirous to try whether I could produce any considerable degree



degree of cold by the evaporation of æther under a receiver whilst exhausting. For this purpose I put the æther into a phial, the neck of which was sufficient to admit the ball of a thermometer: this being placed on the air-pump, under a receiver which had a plate at the top, with a wire passing through a collar of leathers; to this wire the thermometer was fixed, by which means I could easily dip the ball of the thermometer into the æther.

#### EXPERIMENT LX.

The pump was now worked, and whilst the receiver was exhausting, the ball of the thermometer was often dipped into the æther; and when the degree of exhaustion by the barometer-gage was 65 (which was the utmost in this case that the pump would exhaust to) the degree of cold indicated by the fall of the quicksilver in the thermometer was  $48^{\circ}$  below 0 on FAHRENHEIT'S scale; so that there was a degree of cold produced  $103^{\circ}$  colder than the air in the room where the experiment was made, the thermometer in it being at  $55^{\circ}$  degrees above 0. The pump was kept continually working for half an hour, and the ball of the thermometer often dipped into the æther; but no greater degree of exhaustion or cold could be produced. The air being let into  
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the receiver, the quicksilver in the thermometer rose  $10^{\circ}$ , viz. to  $38^{\circ}$  below 0.

#### EXPERIMENT LXI.

Fresh æther being put into the phial to what was remaining, the thermometer rose to  $30^{\circ}$  above 0: the pump was then worked again constantly for half an hour; yet by the barometer-gage the degree of exhaustion was now not more than 16, and the degree of cold produced did not exceed the 11th degree below 0, as appeared by the quicksilver in the thermometer. The air being let into the receiver, the remaining æther was examined, and there were found several pieces of ice at the bottom of the phial, some of them as big as large peas, which, when the æther became nearly of the heat of  $32^{\circ}$  or freezing point of water, were intirely dissolved.

The air-pump with which these experiments were made exhausted above 400 times before the æther was put under the receiver.



XXXIII. *On the Culture of Pine-apples. An extract of a Letter from William Bastard, Esq. of Kitley in Devonshire, to Samuel Musgrave, M. D. F. R. S. dated Kitley, March 15, 1777. Communicated to the Society by Dr. Musgrave.*

Read June 19, 1777. **B**EFORE I enter into the particulars of raising pine-apples in water, it will be necessary to tell you that my hot-house is covered with the best crown-glass, which I apprehend gives more heat than the common sort of green glass generally used for hot-houses. In the front part of the house, and indeed any where in the lowest parts of it, the pine-apple plants will not thrive well in water. The way in which I treat them is as follows. I place a shelf near the highest part of the back wall, so that the pine-plants may stand without absolutely touching the glass, but as near it as can be: on this shelf I place pans full of water, about seven or eight inches deep; and in these pans I put the pine-apple plants, growing in the same pots of earth as they are generally planted in to be plunged into the

bark-bed in the common way; that is, I put the pot of earth, with the pine-plant in it, in the pan full of water, and as the water decreases I constantly fill up the pan. I place either plants in fruit, or young plants as soon as they are well rooted, in these pans of water, and find they thrive equally well: the fruit reared this way is always much larger, as well as better flavoured, than when ripened in the bark-bed. I have more than once put only the plants themselves without any earth, I mean after they had roots, into these pans of water, with only water sufficient to keep the roots always covered, and found them flourish beyond expectation. In my house, the shelf I mention is supported by irons from the top, and there is an intervening space of about ten inches between the back wall and the shelf. A neighbour of mine has placed a leaden cistern upon the top of the back flue (in which, as it is in contact with the flue, the water is always warm when there is fire in the house) and finds his fruit excellent and large. My shelf does not touch the back flue, but is about a foot above it; and consequently the water is only warmed by the air in the house. Both these methods do well. The way I account for this success is, that the warm air always ascending to the part where this shelf is placed, as being the highest

part of the house, keeps it much hotter than in any other part. The temperature at that place is, I believe, seldom less than what is indicated by the 73<sup>d</sup> degree of FAHRENHEIT's thermometer, and when the Sun shines it is often at above 100°: the water the plants grow in seems to enable them to bear the greatest heat, if sufficient air be allowed; and I often see the roots of the plants growing out of the holes in the bottom of the pot of earth, and shooting vigorously in the water.

My hot-house (the dimensions of which it may be proper to know) is sixty feet long, and eleven feet wide the flues included; six feet high in the front, and eleven feet at the back on the inside of the house. It is warmed by two fires. A leaden trough or cistern on the top of the back flue is preferable to my shelf, as in it the pine-plants grow much faster in the winter, the water being always warmed by the flue: of this I have seen the great benefit these last two months in my neighbourhood. It is not foreign to this purpose to mention that, as a person was moving a large pine-plant from the hot-bed in my house last summer, which plant was just showing fruit, by some accident he broke off the plant just above the earth in which it grew, and there was no root whatever left to it: by way of experiment I

took the plant, and fixed it upright in a pan of water (without any earth whatever) on the shelf; it there soon threw out roots, and bore a pine-apple that weighed upwards of two pounds.



XXXIV. *Experiments and Observations made in Britain, in order to obtain a Rule for measuring Heights with the Barometer.* By Colonel William Roy, F. R. S.

Read June 12 and 19, and Nov. 6 and 13, 1777.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

**I**N philosophical inquiries of every kind, where any point is to be ascertained by experiments, these cannot be repeated too often, nor varied too much, in order to obtain the truth: for even when the utmost precaution hath been used, and the greatest pains have been taken, it rarely happens, that they agree so exactly, as to leave no room for doubt. Were it possible at all times, to have experiments made in circumstances perfectly similar, a considerable degree of consistency might naturally be expected among the results, whereof the mean would determine the point in question; but different men, making use of different instruments, have different modes of conducting their operations, each pursuing the tract that seems to him the most likely to insure success. Hence it is that a variety  
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of results arise, and that things sometimes appear contradictory, or at least present themselves under new forms, difficult at first sight to be accounted for, and therefore apt to mislead, till by a farther investigation of the matter, the true causes are discovered. Even irregularities of this sort are worthy of being communicated, that others may know what hath happened before, and what, in like cases, they may expect to meet with, in the course of their future inquiries. Improvements of every kind advance by slow degrees; and it is not until things have been viewed in every possible light, that the errors, even of our own experiments, are discovered, the points in question ultimately ascertained, and the branch of philosophy depending upon them, gradually brought nearer to perfection.

Ever since the discovery made by TORRICELLI, the barometer hath been applied, by different persons, in different countries, to the measurement of vertical heights, with more or less success, according to the more or less perfect state of the instruments used, and the particular modes of calculation adopted, by the observers. But of all those who have hitherto employed themselves in this way, none hath bestowed so much time and pains, or succeeded so well, as Mr. DE LUC, of Geneva, F. R. S. In two quarto volumes, published some years since, that gentleman



gentleman hath given us the history of the barometer and thermometer, with a very curious and elaborate detail of many years experiments, made by him, chiefly on the mountain Saleve. It would be totally superfluous here to enter into any circumstantial account of the method he makes use of, since that hath already been so fully illustrated by two Fellows of the Royal Society, who have at the same time given formulæ and tables, adapted to the measures of this country, (Phil. Transf. for 1774, vol. LXV. N° xx. and xxx.) that nothing farther can be desired on that head.

It may nevertheless be necessary just to call to remembrance that the rule, deduced from the observations on Saleve, consists of three parts. 1st, The equation for the expansion of the quicksilver in the tube, from the effect of heat, whereby the heights of the columns, in the inferior and superior barometers, are constantly reduced to what they would have been in the fixed temperature of  $54^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$  of FAHRENHEIT, independant of the pressure they respectively sustained. 2d, When the mean temperature of the column of air to be measured, is  $69^{\circ}.32$ , as indicated by thermometers exposed to the Sun's rays at its extremities; then the difference of the common logarithms, of the equated heights of quicksilver in the

two barometers, gives the altitude intercepted between them, in toises and thousandth parts, reckoning the three figures to the right hand decimals, and the others integers, the index being neglected. This temperature of  $69^{\circ}.32$ , when the logarithmic differences give the real height without any equation, is reduced to  $39^{\circ}.74$ , the new zero of Mr. DE LUC's scale, when his formula is adapted to English fathoms and thousandth parts, instead of French toises. And lastly, when the mean temperature of the air is above or below  $39^{\circ}.74$ , an equation, amounting to  $\frac{21}{10000}$  parts of the logarithmic height for each degree of difference, is, in the first case to be added to, and in the last subtracted from, that result, in order to obtain the real altitude.

In Mr. DE LUC's book, the experiments for ascertaining the expansion of the quicksilver, are not given in detail; neither are the particular temperatures of the barometers specified. The winter season was however chosen for the purpose; one being left in a cold room, and the other in a closet, heated as high as could conveniently be suffered. The operation having been repeated several times without any essential difference in the results, this general conclusion is drawn, that between the temperatures of melting ice and boiling water, the expansion of  
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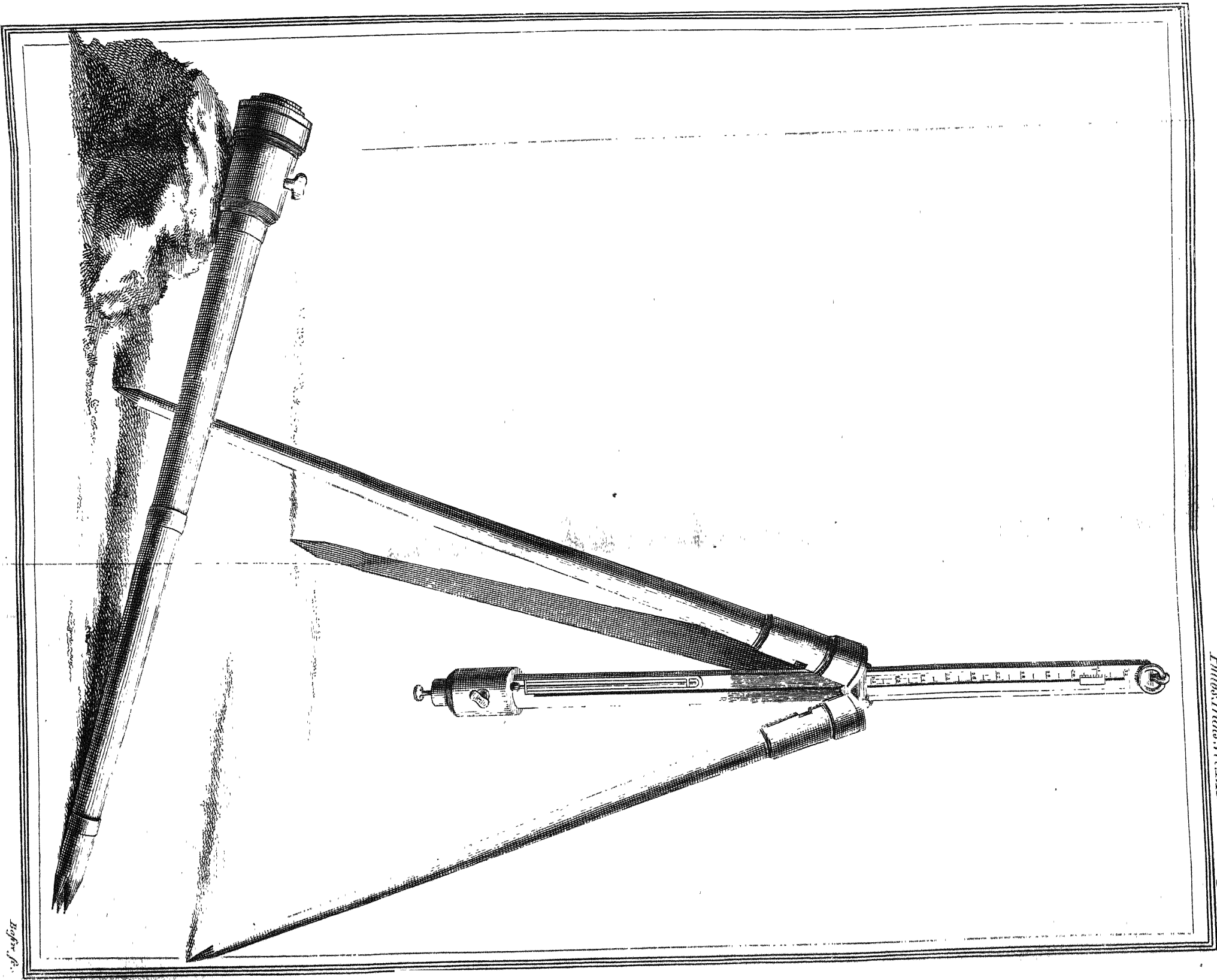
the quicksilver is exactly six French lines, or .532875 decimal parts of an English inch. But it is to be observed, that the barometer stood then at 28.77525; whereas, if it had stood at 30 inches, it would have been .555556, because the expansion is in proportion to the length of the column. Farther, the interval between the freezing and boiling points in all thermometers, varies with the height of the barometer, or weight of the atmosphere; and it is the custom in England to make thermometers when the barometer stands at 30 inches; that is to say, 1.225 or 13.8 French lines, higher than when Mr. DE LUC's boiling point was fixed: and since from his experiments it appears, that each line of additional height in the barometer, raises the boiling point  $\frac{1}{1134}$ th part of the interval between that and freezing, it follows that  $\frac{180}{1134} = 0.158 \times 13.8 = 2.2$ , will denote the number of degrees, that Mr. DE LUC's boiling point is lower than that of English thermometers, which reduces it to 209.8 of FAHRENHEIT, and makes the interval between freezing and boiling only 177.8 degrees. Hence the expansion .555556, formerly found, must be increased in the proportion of 177.8 to 180, which gives for the total .5624297 or .56243, on a difference of temperature of 180°. Thus the expansion for each degree, supposing it

to be arithmetical, or uniformly the same in all parts of the scale, will be  $.00312461^{(a)}$ .

Having now shewn the expansion of quicksilver in the tubes of barometers resulting from the Geneva observations, I shall next proceed to give some account of those I made for that purpose. They derive their origin from my having very accidentally observed, that a small degree of heat, and of short duration, sensibly affected the length of the column in Mr. RAMSDEN's portable barometer, whereof a view is given in plate XVI. The principal parts of this instrument are a simple straight tube, fixed into a wooden cistern, which, for the convenience of carrying, is shut with an ivory screw, and, that being removed, is open when in use. Fronting this aperture is distinctly seen, the coincidence of the gage-mark, with a line on the rod of an ivory float, swimming on the surface of the quicksilver, which is raised or depressed by a brass screw at the bottom of the cistern. From this, as a fixed point, the height of the column is readily measured on the scale attached to the frame, always to  $\frac{1}{500}$

(a) This paper having lately been communicated to Mr. DE LUC, he hath informed me, that the difference of temperature in his experiments, amounted to about  $31^{\circ}$  of REAUMUR, or  $72^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, above freezing: wherefore,  $.00312461 \times 72 = .225$  nearly, will denote the rate of expansion from which he deduced that for  $180^{\circ}$ ; and within these limits, it will hereafter be found to differ very little from the result of the present experiments.







part of an inch, by means of a nonius moved with rack-work. A thermometer is placed near the cistern, whose ball heretofore, was usually inclosed within the wood work, a defect that hath been since remedied. The three-legged stand, supporting the instrument when in use, serves as a case for it, when inverted and carried from place to place. Two of these barometers, after the quicksilver in them hath been carefully boiled, being suffered to remain long enough in the same situation, to acquire the same temperature, usually agree in height, or rarely differ from each other more than a few thousandth parts of an inch, which were constantly allowed for in calculating altitudes, as well as in estimating the rate of expansion, in the course of the following experiments.

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## S E C T I O N I.

### *Experiments on the expansion of quicksilver.*

THE experiments made for this purpose were numerous as well as various, and were therefore subdivided into several classes. To give a minute detail of them all, would be extremely tedious, and now wholly useless, since it was from those of the third class alone, that the



rate as well as maximum of expansion was ascertained: wherefore those of the two preceding classes need only be mentioned in a general way.

The first set of the first class comprehended such as were made with one barometer in a cold room, or in the open air, and the other in a room on the same level with the former, where there was constantly a fire, which was occasionally increased, in order to augment the difference of temperature. When the heated barometer had remained several hours in an angle of the room, the difference of temperature of its quicksilver above that of the coldest, as indicated by their respective attached thermometers, rarely exceeded  $10$  or  $12^{\circ}$ , which, from a mean of many observations, gave an expansion of  $.0333$  decimals of an inch, for the  $10^{\circ}$  comprehended between  $32$  and  $42^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT'S thermometer. So far the result arising in this way, from small differences of temperature, will be found to agree with the third class of experiments.

But when, in the second set of this first class, the difference of temperature was augmented to  $20$  or  $30^{\circ}$ , by exposing the barometer within doors to a greater heat, or placing the superior one on the leads, whereby it received the direct and reflected rays of the Sun throughout the greatest part of the day, while the other was kept in

in the cold area underneath, the rate of expansion for the first  $10^{\circ}$  exceeded that formerly found nearly in the proportion of three to two, while that for the second and third terms, of  $10^{\circ}$  each, diminished progressively.

The chief, though not the only cause of this great difference, as will appear hereafter, arose from the position of the ball of the thermometer, originally inclosed within the wood-work of the frame, which prevented it from receiving the heat so readily as the quicksilver in the tube; at the same time that it retained it longer, and consequently produced results in some degree fallacious.

Finding, from the first class of experiments, that much uncertainty remained with regard to the rate of expansion of quicksilver affected by these smaller degrees of heat, and that it was utterly impossible, from them, to determine its maximum for the  $180^{\circ}$  between freezing and boiling; I resolved to try, how much a column of 30 inches of quicksilver, carefully boiled in a tube, would lengthen, the same being placed with the open end upwards in a tin vessel, occasionally filled with pounded ice and water, and afterwards brought to boil, by means of a charcoal fire placed underneath? In this second class, it was easy to see, that the expansion of the tube containing the quicksilver, was necessarily to be taken into the account, and added to that apparently found by experiment.

ment. This was of course to be done, either by such differences as I could discern and measure, or by those that had resulted from the experience of others.

The nature of the apparatus, employed in this class of experiments, will be easily understood from plate XVII. where it is represented, as it was used in those of the third class. In its first state it was not quite so long, and a chafing-dish with a charcoal fire, occupied the place of the cistern holding the quicksilver below. By means of a circular bit of tin, foldered edgeways in the center of the bottom, and an aperture in the middle of the lid, the tube was kept steadily in the axis of the vessel. Other openings in the lid, served for the admission of the thermometer, and the application of a deal rod close to the side of the tube, when its height was to be measured. The longitudinal expansion of the glass was marked by a scratch thereon with a fine edged file at the top of the deal rod, when respectively at the temperatures of freezing and boiling. The apparent dilatation of the quicksilver was in like manner marked, by the coincidence of its surface with the lower edge of a brass ring embracing the tube.

It having been found impossible to procure tubes whose bores were truly cylindrical, or of any uniform figure, the experiment was repeated, as often as possible, in

in both ends of the same tube, that the mean might be taken. But it frequently happened that the tube, which had undergone one or more experiments in one end, broke before any could be made with it in the other. In this case, the rate of expansion in the last end was taken from that given by such another tube, where it had succeeded in both. The mean of five results with the best tubes, taken in this way, gave .4901 for the apparent expansion of 30 inches of quicksilver, on 180° of FAHRENHEIT, between freezing and boiling, which being augmented by the apparent longitudinal dilatation of the glass  $.0356 \times 3 = .1068$ , the real expansion is .5969; exceeding Mr. DE LUC's by more than  $\frac{3}{1000}$ ths of an inch. If, however, Mr. SMEATON's dilatation of glass, ( $.025 \times 3 = .075$ ) be substituted, instead of that resulting from these experiments, the real expansion of 30 inches of quicksilver will be .5651, which does not exceed it quite  $\frac{3}{1000}$  parts of an inch.

In this class of experiments, having attended as diligently as possible to all the circumstances, it seemed to me, that tubes with a small bore, and whose glass was thick, lengthened more than those, which had a larger bore and whose glass was thin: whence I was led to suppose, that solid glass rods would dilate more in proportion, and consequently, shew a still more perceptible difference.

difference. With the view of ascertaining this point, I procured four glass rods near three feet long each, and of different diameters, the largest being of the size of the little finger, and the smallest about the thickness of a quill. One end of each, was somewhat larger than the other, and was made perfectly smooth, as that on which they were to rest when severally measured with the deal rod. They were then all placed in the tin vessel, in such a manner, as to admit pounded ice rammed very close around them, and the interstices to be filled with water. Having remained in that state a full half hour, they were severally measured with the deal rod, whose length of  $32\frac{1}{2}$  inches was scratched on each with the sharp edge of the file. This being done, the ice thrown out, and the vessel carefully washed, all the rods were replaced in it, immersed in water, which afterwards was brought to boil. The fire being kept up, and the ebullition rendered as violent as possible for half an hour, the glass rods were then severally measured, by applying them one after another to the deal rod, standing with them in the boiling water. The experiment was repeated three times, on as many different days, without its being possible to discern, that any of the glass rods had dilated more than that of deal, from a difference of temperature of  $180^{\circ}$ . In all of them, the freezing mark seemed accurately to coincide with the top  
of

of the deal rod; whereas the dilatation of the tubes, by the same degree of heat, was always very visible<sup>(b)</sup>.

Finding from the second class of experiments, whereof the general result hath now been given, that glass rods seemed not to lengthen more than deal; and that tubes of different bores, and probably too of different sorts of glass, were susceptible of different degrees of extension, which rendered it impossible, by this means, to ascertain the longitudinal expansion of the quicksilver they contained; I thought it necessary to recur once more to the barometer, and to try whether it could not be so contrived as to act in water of different temperatures, from freezing to boiling. This led me to the experiments of the third class: and in order to comprehend them thoroughly, it seems necessary to point out some few alterations which the apparatus underwent.

The center of the bottom being pierced on purpose, a brass socket was prepared for it, wherein a hole was bored conically, to receive the ground-end of a barometer tube, of the ordinary length of  $33\frac{1}{2}$  inches; the tube having been first ground in a separate piece of brass, and ulti-

(b) Since these experiments were made, the relative expansion of 18 inches of one of the tubes and one of the rods that had been formerly employed, was found to be, by Mr. CUMMING's pyrometer, nearly as 4 to 1, from a heat approaching to that of boiling oil.

mately in the socket itself, fitted it so exactly, as to suffer no water to pass. The socket being inserted into the aperture at the bottom of the vessel, was firmly soldered to it for the reception of the tube, which was so ground as to reach a full inch and a half below the surface of the brass. It could not descend farther, the ground parts in both being of the figure of the frustum of an inverted cone. From the view in the plate it will appear, that underneath the vessel; a separate stand was placed, in order to support the iron cistern containing the quicksilver. The diameter of the cistern was such, that its stand being occasionally moved, so as to bring one side of it close to the ground part of the tube, the other side projected beyond the bottom of the vessel; and consequently permitted the rod of a float, resting on the surface of the quicksilver, to rise freely and parallel to the axis of the tube. The rod was of deal,  $\frac{1}{10}$ th of an inch square, carrying on its top a scale, whose zero lay in the lower surface of the float; and whereof the six uppermost inches, from 28 to 34, were divided into 20ths.

That the whole column of quicksilver might alternately be covered with the freezing mixture and water of different temperatures, and yet permit its surface to be seen, two eyes of plate glass were screwed into sockets, soldered for that purpose opposite to each other, near the  
top.

top of the vessel, which, in the first set of the third class of experiments, was little more than 29 inches high. The top of the tube passing through the aperture in the lid, one and a half or two inches of the vacuum generally rose above the vessel. That the expansion of the column might be measured as nearly as possible in that part of the tube fronting the center of the eyes, more or less quicksilver, according to the state of the atmosphere, was occasionally put into the cistern, to raise or depress the surface of the column to the proper height. A thin brass ring, whose lower parts were made to spring, embraced with sufficient force the upper part of the tube, permitting it at the same time to be moved freely with the hand. It carried along with it a nonius index, projecting as far as the center of the rod, and consequently applying itself to the divisions of the scale, which was kept in its proper position by passing through a slit fitted for it in an arm attached to the lid. The divisions on the nonius being the same with those of the barometer formerly described, the height of the quicksilver could always be read off to  $\frac{1}{500}$ th part of an inch.

The quicksilver having been carefully boiled, as on former occasions, in the tube; and that being filled completely, and held with its open end upwards; the tin vessel was inverted over it, and lowered gradually, till the



ground end could be inserted into the socket with such a degree of force as to prevent it from being too easily removed. The finger being then applied closely to the open end of the tube, the whole apparatus was turned up, and placed over the cistern into which the quicksilver had previously been put, great care being taken not to remove the finger till the lower extremity of the tube was fairly immersed into the quicksilver; when that in the tube was permitted to descend into an equilibrium with the atmosphere. In the first experiment it was found that the water issued by the eyes, and running down the side of the vessel, fell into the cistern. In order to remedy this inconveniency, a circular piece of tin was folded round the upper part of it, immediately below the eyes; and a flat spout, projecting from it, served as a gutter to throw off the water from the cistern, and from the lamps made use of to bring that in the vessel to boil. Six lamps, each with a double light, were suspended around the trunk of the vessel, to heat the water as equally as possible; though any irregularity of this kind was sufficiently guarded against, by constantly mixing it during the operation. Another lamp of the same kind stood under the cistern, whereby the quicksilver there was kept at the temperature of the water in the vessel, each having its proper thermometer: this last lamp was placed  
and

and displaced frequently, during the course of every experiment; for the heat was very expeditiously communicated to the iron cistern, and thence to the quicksilver it contained; and both were found to cool very fast, after the lamp was removed. Such was the state of the apparatus, when the first set of this third class of experiments was made. In those of the second set, its height was farther augmented by tin soldered to the top, that a tube of the ordinary length might be wholly immersed in boiling water. The third and last alteration consisted in the occasional application of a detached tin case, equal in diameter to the upper part of the vessel, having a hole in its bottom to admit the top of a long tube to pass. This case was so contrived, that its bottom stood two inches and a half higher than the lid of the vessel, thereby allowing room for the hand to move the index up or down. In this state the apparatus is represented in the view; and its various uses will be best understood from the account of the experiments, which were subdivided into four sets.

Those of the first set were made with tubes of a large bore, upwards of three-tenths of an inch in diameter, of the ordinary length, with a vacuum over the quicksilver of two inches and a half or three inches, part of which reached above the top of the vessel. The mean of three  
experi-

experiments gave .5258, for the total dilatation of 30 inches of quicksilver, on  $180^{\circ}$  between freezing and boiling; that, answering to the first  $20^{\circ}$ , between  $32^{\circ}$  and  $52^{\circ}$ , was .0688; that, for the  $20^{\circ}$  in the middle of the scale, between  $112^{\circ}$  and  $132^{\circ}$ , was .058; and the rate for the last  $20^{\circ}$ , between  $192^{\circ}$  and  $212^{\circ}$ , was only .041. From this first set of the third class of experiments, it appeared evident, that the expansion of 30 inches of quicksilver in the barometer, suffering a heat equal to  $180^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, instead of exceeding Mr. DE LUC's, as appeared to be the case from the results of the open tube, really fell short of it: and instead of being arithmetical or uniformly the same, for equal changes of temperature, was actually progressive; the expansion answering to the lower part of the scale, being greater than that corresponding to the middle; which again exceeded that for high temperatures. In these experiments, when the water had acquired a heat 20 or 30 degrees greater than that of the open air, a certain dustiness was perceived in the vacuum of the tube. At  $100^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, or thereabout, this appearance had so far increased, as to shew clearly, that it could proceed from no other cause than a vapour arising from the surface of the heated quicksilver, quite invisible, till, by its condensation in the cold part of the tube, it was formed into balls, every where adhering to  
its

its sides and summit. These globules were very small near the surface of the water, augmenting gradually as they approached the top of the tube, where they were greatest: their bulk increased with the heat; and when the water was at or near boiling, they would sometimes unite, and descend by their own gravity, along the sides of the tube, into the general mass. Hence the progressive diminution of the rate of expansion of the column of quicksilver in the barometer, perceptible even in the first class of experiments, is easily accounted for by the resistance of the elastic vapour<sup>(c)</sup>, acting against the top of the tube, which was here colder than the rest.

But in the application of the barometer to the measurement of heights, the whole instrument is of the same temperature; wherefore, in the second set of this third class of experiments, the tin vessel was heightened, that tubes of the ordinary length, placed in it, might be wholly immersed in boiling water. The mean of four experiments, which agreed very nearly among themselves, gave .5117 for the total expansion between freezing and boiling; for the 20°, between 112° and 132°.059; and for the last 20°, between 192° and 212°.046. In these

(c) Having mentioned the circumstances to Mr. RAMSDEN, it first occurred to him, that the resistance of the elastic vapour was the cause of the diminution in the rate of expansion:

experiments, the tube being wholly covered with boiling water, no condensation of vapour took place in the vacuum; and therefore no particles of quicksilver were seen adhering to the upper part of the tube. When the water boiled, the resistance of the vapour was greater than in the preceding set, and the total expansion less. These two results serve strongly to confirm each other: it is, however, the last that furnishes the data for constructing the table of expansion depending upon the heat of the quicksilver in the barometer, of which table we shall give an account hereafter.

Finding, from the comparison of these two sets of experiments with each other, that the maximum and rate of expansion seemed to vary with the length of the vacuum above the quicksilver, I was advised to try<sup>(d)</sup> what might be the result, when the vacuum was much longer than in the common barometer.

The third set of experiments of this class was therefore made with a tube somewhat narrower in the bore than the former, and whose vacuum was  $14\frac{1}{2}$  inches in length, whereof  $11\frac{1}{2}$  reached above the top of the vessel. The mean of three observations gave .5443 for the total expansion on  $180^{\circ}$ ; that for the first  $20^{\circ}$  was .067; for

(d) Dr. BLAGDEN, who afterwards assisted in some of the first experiments with the manometer, proposed that with the long tube,

the  $20^{\circ}$  in the middle of the scale .058; and for the uppermost  $20^{\circ}$ .065: whence the mean rate for every  $20^{\circ}$ , is nearly .0605<sup>(e)</sup>. In this set, the condensation in the vacuum of the tube was particularly attended to: it began, as in those of the first set, immediately above the surface of the boiling water, which was always kept an inch or two above the top of the column: the lowermost globules were very small, increasing gradually till they got without the lid of the vessel, where they were the largest; thence they diminished uniformly upwards, and disappeared entirely three or four inches below the top of the tube. Though the rate for the middlemost  $20^{\circ}$ , in these last experiments, be below the mean, probably from some inaccuracy in observation; yet, being compared with the former sets, they still serve to corroborate each other: for in these with the long tube, the vacuum seems to have been either completely maintained, or nearly so; and we accordingly find the maximum of expansion increased, and its rate rendered nearly uniform, as will be farther confirmed from what follows.

(e) Mr. CAVENDISH, who assisted in the first part of the experiments with the open tube, informed me, that, in those made by his father Lord CHARLES, the difference between the expansion of quicksilver and glass, from  $180^{\circ}$  of heat, was .469. If to this we add Mr. SMEATON's dilatation of glass, the total expansion of 30 inches of quicksilver will be .544, which agrees with the experiments in the long tube, and gives a rate of only .003022 for each degree.

I have already had occasion to mention that a detached tin case was sometimes applied above the vessel, in which state it is represented in the view. This method was thought of during the operations with the long tube, in order to try whether the vacuum was completely maintained by the temperature of the open air? For this purpose the case was placed on the stones of the yard, with a small tube inserted in it, to preserve an open passage in the middle: it was then rammed full of a composition of salt and ice; and afterwards fixed on the top of the long tube. The degree of cold thus applied round the greatest part of the vacuum, must have been very great, probably near the zero of FAHRENHEIT; yet it produced no visible alteration in the height of the column of quicksilver, which still remained in boiling water below, and should have risen, if the vacuum had been formerly incomplete. As it would have occasioned much trouble to have lengthened the several parts of the apparatus so as to have kept the long tube wholly in boiling water, the counterpart of this last experiment was not made in the accurate manner it ought: nevertheless, the tin case, being emptied of its cold composition, was placed on the tube as before, and filled with boiling water; which, joining with the intermediate steam arising from that in the vessel below, must have kept the whole nearly in the same

same temperature. The consequence of this application was, that the column shortened about  $\frac{2}{100}$ ths of an inch; which seems to prove, that the quicksilver vapour now reached the summit of the tube, and, acting against it, overcame, by so much, the pressure of the atmosphere.

I should now proceed to give some account of the fourth set of this last class of experiments, made on the condensation of the quicksilver, by means of artificial cold, below the temperature of the air. Previously however to this, it may not be improper to take notice, in a more general way, of some others that were made on expansion; as tending, with certain circumstances yet to be mentioned, not only to confirm those already described, but likewise to account for many irregularities that occur in operating with barometers.

In the course of the preceding experiments, from accidents of various kinds, it was often necessary to reboil the quicksilver; and in that operation, many tubes were broken. The frequent removal of the socket from the bottom of the vessel, in order to get others ground for it, became at last very troublesome; and made more caution necessary, in boiling such as were ground, especially in frosty weather, which happened to be the case in the last days of March, 1775: wherefore it was thought best in the interim to try, what might be the expansion of a column



of quicksilver, carefully put into the tube, but not boiled therein?

With this view, the standard barometer and apparatus were left out during the night of the 29th, that they might acquire the same temperature, which was found next morning to be  $34^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ ; the unboiled quicksilver standing  $\frac{1}{100}$ th of an inch higher than that which had been boiled. The lamps being applied to the vessel, the lengthening of the unboiled column was perceived, on the whole, to be more irregular, and the progressive diminution quicker, than in former experiments; so as to give, for the maximum of expansion, only .443 for  $180^{\circ}$ .

On the morning of the 31st, the unboiled column, which on the preceding day had been the highest, was lower than the other by near  $\frac{2}{100}$ ths of an inch, the temperature of both being  $31^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ . As the water acquired heat from the application of the lamps, the rate of expansion diminished; and, at boiling, was only .405 for  $180^{\circ}$ . The operation of the 30th seems to point out, in a manner sufficiently conclusive, that the air contained in the unboiled quicksilver, rendered its specific gravity less, than that which had been boiled even a great while before; since it required a longer column of the first, to counterbalance the weight of the atmosphere. And though the vacua might possibly, at the beginning, have been equally complet

complete in both; yet they could not continue long so: for the air escaping gradually from the unboiled quicksilver, its elasticity increasing with the heat, and uniting with the quicksilver vapour, must have resisted the dilatation of the column, and rendered it less than on former occasions; which actually appeared from experiment. This is farther confirmed by the observations of the subsequent day; for now the unboiled column was become the shortest, owing no doubt to more air having ascended, and rendered the vacuum still more incomplete. Thus, the causes of resistance increasing, the dilatation is lessened in a superior degree.

The other circumstances to be mentioned, occurred on the 12th of April. After finishing one of the experiments of the second class, and when the water had cooled to  $192^{\circ}$ , the vessel, by accident, received a sudden jolt, whereby the mouth of the tube must have been raised, for a moment, out of the quicksilver in the cistern. In a few minutes after this, intending to observe how far the column had shortened from the decreasing heat, I was surprized to find, that the quicksilver had wholly disappeared in the tube, and was sunk so low as not to be seen by looking obliquely down at the eye of the vessel. It was then certain that air, and probably a particle of moisture along with it, had ascended into the upper part of the tube, whereby

whereby the vacuum was destroyed in so remarkable a degree. Since this accident made it necessary to reboil the quicksilver, the water (then between  $180^{\circ}$  and  $190^{\circ}$ ) was let out by the cock fixed for that purpose at the bottom of the vessel; but before it could be entirely drawn off, the tube and its contents, had so sensibly felt the condensing force of the surrounding atmosphere, then about  $48^{\circ}$ , that the quicksilver had risen again, and presented itself opposite to the eye of the vessel, something lower indeed than where it formerly stood. On this discovery, and as soon as water could be boiled for the purpose, the vessel was filled again, when the quicksilver subsided, as before, quite out of sight; and on drawing off the water a second time, it rose anew, seemingly to its former height.

The appearance, which this accidental circumstance produced, was such, as naturally suggested that farther experiments might have been made, varied as much as possible from each other, by the admission of different quantities of air, or of air and moisture intermixed. But the nature of the vessel rendering it impossible to see, and consequently to measure, the motion of the quicksilver, occasioned by the alternate expansion and condensation of the elastic vapour contained in the upper part of the tube, and which could not have been accomplished

plished without many troublesome alterations in the apparatus, therefore nothing of the kind was attempted. From the circumstances just now mentioned, it will be readily conceived, how much care is necessary in operating with barometers for the measurement of heights, that the vacua be as nearly as possible compleat; and particularly, that no moisture get up into the tube. I now proceed to the fourth and last set of experiments.

Having found, from the two first sets of this class, the rate of expansion of a column of quicksilver, in the tube of a barometer of the ordinary length, to be progressive and not arithmetical; and that its maximum, for the  $180^{\circ}$  comprehended between freezing and boiling, was less than had been supposed; I thought it proper to try, by means of artificial cold, whether the condensation, for the  $32^{\circ}$  below freezing, followed nearly the same law?

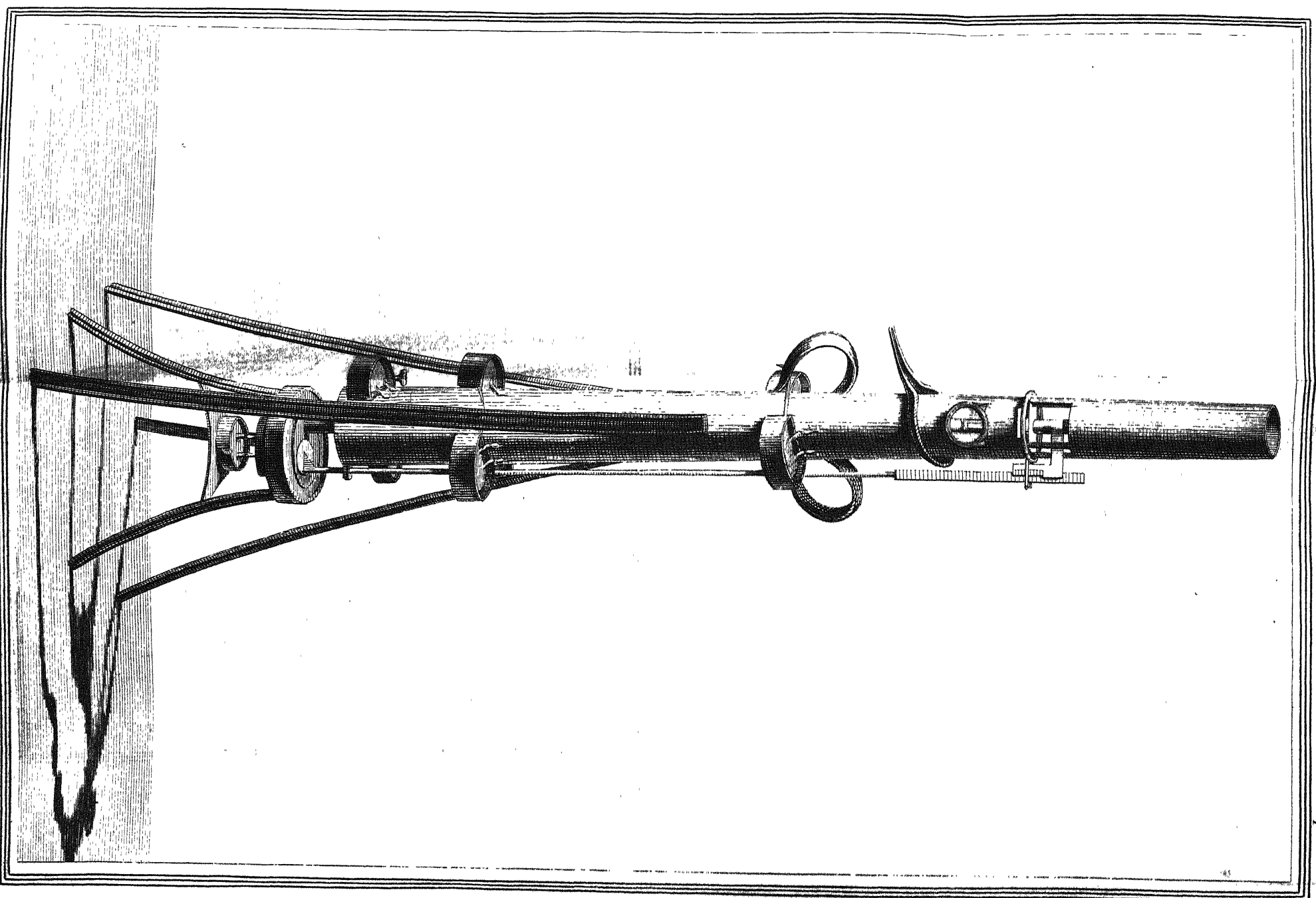
For this purpose the tin vessel, containing the ground tube, was rammed quite full of pounded ice and salt, as well as the tin stand holding the iron cistern below. In this operation, twelve pounds of ice and four pounds of salt were employed, whereby the mean temperature of the mixture was reduced to  $+4^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT. But before the eyes of the vessel could be sufficiently freed from the composition, so as to permit the surface of the column to be distinctly seen and read off; it had risen to

+14°; the temperature of the air, and also of the standard barometer, being at the same moment  $49^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ . The observed condensation, arising from this difference of  $35^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ , was  $\frac{1.2}{100}$ ths of an inch; or .1189, when reduced for the height of the barometer, which then stood at 30.296. Hence the condensation for 32° is .1072, or .00335 for each degree. In this day's experiment, when the temperature of the mixture had risen to 32°, that of the air and standard barometer was  $52^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ ; whence the reduced difference, for the 20° between 32° and 52°, was found to be .0664, answerable to former experiments.

The same experiment was repeated two days after, with great care, the vessel being filled no higher than the surface of the quicksilver. The mean temperature of the mixture was now +4°, and that of the standard barometer  $49^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ . The observed condensation, arising from this difference of  $45^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ , was  $\frac{1.62}{1000}$ ; or .1594, when reduced for the height of the barometer, then standing at 30.416: hence the rate for 32° is .1127, or .003522 for each degree. When the temperature of the mixture had risen to 32°, that of the air was 51°: whence the augmented rate for the 20°, between 32° and 52°, was found to be .0662.

From the mean of these two experiments it appears, that the condensation of a column of 30 inches of quicksilver









quickfilver in the barometer, affected by the  $32^{\circ}$  of cold below freezing, is .1099: and that the expansion from  $20^{\circ}$  of heat, between  $32^{\circ}$  and  $52^{\circ}$ , is .0663, a number agreeing perfectly well with former results. If the condensation .1099 thus found, be added to the expansion .5117 arising from the second class of experiments, we shall have .6216 for the total difference of height of the columns of quickfilver in two barometers, sustaining the same pressure, but differing from each other in their temperatures  $212^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT'S thermometer.

The series of numbers expressed in the annexed table, agreeing in all essential respects with the expansions found by experiment, will therefore shew that which corresponds to any intermediate temperature, for every  $10^{\circ}$  of the scale.

Rate of expansion of a column of quicksilver in the tube  
of a barometer.

	Temperature.	Expansions.	Differences.	2d Differences.
Expansion above 32° of FAHRENHEIT; equation to be subtracted from the height of the column of quicksilver of 30 inches.	212	.5117		
	202	.4888	.0229	
	192	.4652	.0236	
	182	.4409	.0243	
	172	.4159	.0250	.0007
	162	.3902	.0257	
	152	.3638	.0264	
	142	.3367	.0271	
	132	.3090	.0277	
	122	.2807	.0283	
	112	.2518	.0289	.0006
	102	.2223	.0295	
	92	.1922	.0301	
	82	.1615	.0307	
	72	.1302	.0313	
Condensation below 32° of FAHRENHEIT; equation to be added.	62	.0984	.0318	
	52	.0661	.0323	
	42	.0333	.0328	
	32	.0000	.0333	.0005
	22	.0338	.0338	
	12	.0681	.0343	
	2	.1029	.0348	
	0	.1099	.0070	

*Construction and application of the table of equation, for the expansion of the quicksilver in the tubes of barometers.*

In the introduction to this paper there was occasion to remark, that in the application of the barometer to the measurement of heights, various modes of calculation had been adopted. The easiest and best method seems however to be, by means of the tables of common logarithms, which were first thought of by Mr. MARIOTTE, and afterwards applied by Dr. HALLEY, Mr. BOUGUER, Mr. DE LUC, and others. They have all proceeded on the supposition, that air is a truly homogeneous and elastic fluid, whose condensations being proportionable to the weights with which it is loaded, its dilatations are in the inverse of the weights; and in consequence of this law, that the heights of the atmosphere ascended, are in geometrical progression, while the corresponding successive descents of the quicksilver in the tube of the barometer, are in arithmetical progression.

Mr. DE LUC makes use of an arithmetical or uniform equation for the heat of the quicksilver in his barometers, whereby their relative heights are reduced to what they would have been in the fixed temperature of  $54^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$

of FAHRENHEIT. In the formulæ adapting his rule to English measures (Phil. Transf. vol. LXVII. N° xx. and xxx.) hath been shewn, that the easiest and simplest method is, to make the difference of temperature of the two barometers the argument for the equation; and that it is sufficient to reduce either column to what would have been its height in the temperature of the other. But whatever may heretofore have been the method of using the equation for the heat of the quicksilver, while it was considered as arithmetical; now that it hath been shewn, from the preceding experiments, to be progressive, there seems at least to be propriety in applying to each barometer the equation answering to its particular temperature. And though, for this purpose, any fixed temperature might have been assumed at pleasure, as that to which both barometers were to be reduced; yet, the freezing point being fundamental in all thermometers, and that being likewise the zero of the scale for the equation depending on the heat of the air, as will be shewn hereafter, it hath been preferred to any other.

From the experiments it appears, that a column of quicksilver of the temperature of  $32^{\circ}$ , sustained, by the weight of the atmosphere, to the height of 30 inches in the barometer, when gradually affected by different degrees of heat, suffers a progressive expansion; and that,

having

having acquired the heat of boiling water, it is lengthened  $\frac{5117}{10000}$  parts of an inch : also, that the same column, suffering a condensation by  $32^{\circ}$  of cold, extending to the zero of FAHRENHEIT, is shortened  $\frac{1099}{10000}$  parts, the weight of the atmosphere remaining in both cases unaltered ; but that, in the application of the barometer to the measurement of altitudes, since the pressure and length of the column change with every alteration of vertical height, the equation, depending on the difference of temperature of the quicksilver, will necessarily augment or diminish by a proportionable part of the whole. Thus, if the weight of the atmosphere should at any time be so great as to sustain 31 inches of quicksilver, the equation for difference of temperature will be just  $\frac{1}{30}$ th part more than that for 30 inches ; at 25 inches it will be  $\frac{5}{6}$ ths ; at 20 inches  $\frac{2}{3}$ ds ; at 15 inches  $\frac{1}{2}$  ; and at 10 inches only  $\frac{1}{3}$ d of that deduced from experiment.

It is upon these principles that the annexed table of equation hath been constructed, for differences of temperature extending to  $102^{\circ}$  of the thermometer, and for heights of the barometer from 15 to 31 inches ; beyond which limits, it is not probable, that many barometrical observations will be made. The first or left-hand column, shews the height of the barometer for every half inch, from 31 to 25 ; thence for every inch downwards  
to

to 20; the 15th inch being half of the observed expansion. The five next columns towards the right, comprehend the additive equation for condensations, answering to  $0^{\circ}$ ,  $12^{\circ}$ , and  $22^{\circ}$ , with their intermediate differences; those that are progressive, as arising from difference of temperature, being ranged horizontally; and those that are arithmetical, as depending on the height of the barometer, being placed vertically. The temperature of  $32^{\circ}$  requires no equation, and the thirteen columns from thence towards the right hand, contain the subtractive equations for expansion, corresponding to every  $10^{\circ}$  as far as  $102^{\circ}$ , with their progressive and arithmetical differences ranged as before. By means of these differences, the equation for intermediate temperatures may readily be taken out by inspection. Hence is deduced the first part of the rule for measuring heights by the barometer. When the temperature of the quicksilver is below  $32^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, add the corresponding equation for condensation to the observed heights of the columns respectively; when above  $32^{\circ}$ , subtract the equation for expansion from the observed heights of the columns respectively; with which equated heights of quicksilver, expressed in 1000th parts of an inch, the tables of logarithms are to be entered.



Table, shewing the equation to be applied to the observed height of quicksilver in the barometer, from 15 to 31 inches; and for differences of temperature extending to 102° of FAHRENHEIT: whereby the column is reduced to the height it would have stood at in the temperature of 32°.

Observed height of quicksilver in the Barom.	Condensation below 32°; Equation to be added to the height of the quicksilver in the barometer.					Expansion above 32°; Equation to be subtracted from the height of the quicksilver in the Barometer.																											
	0°	Diff.	12°	Diff.	22°	32°	42°	Diff.	52°	Diff.	62°	Diff.	72°	Diff.	82°	Diff.	92°	Diff.	102°														
31	.1136	.00183	.0432	.00114	.0704	.000563	.0344	.000555	.0339	.001102	.0683	.00164	.0334	.00217	.1017	.002692	.0328	.003203	.1345	.003705	.0324	.00410	.1669	.0045384	.0317	.00496	.1986	.005384	.0311	.00579	.2297		
30½	.1118		.0425		.0693		.0349		.0344		.0339		.0333		.0672		.0328		.1000		.0323		.1323		.0319		.1642		.0312		.1954	.0306	.2260
30	.1099		.0418		.0681		.0343		.0338		.0333		.0328		.0661		.0323		.0984		.0318		.1302		.0314		.1616		.0306		.1922	.0301	.2223
29½	.1081		.0411		.0670		.0338		.0332		.0327		.0323		.0650		.0318		.0968		.0312		.1280		.0309		.1589		.0301		.1890	.0296	.2186
29	.1063		.0405		.0658		.0331		.0327		.0322		.0317		.0639		.0312		.0951		.0307		.1258		.0304		.1562		.0296		.1858	.0291	.2149
28½	.1045		.0398		.0647		.0326		.0321		.0316		.0312		.0628		.0307		.0935		.0302		.1237		.0298		.1535		.0291		.1826	.0286	.2112
28	.1026		.0390		.0636		.0321		.0315		.0311		.0306		.0617		.0301		.0918		.0297		.1215		.0293		.1508		.0286		.1794	.0281	.2075
27½	.1008		.0384		.0624		.0314		.0310		.0305		.0301		.0606		.0296		.0902		.0291		.1193		.0288		.1481		.0281		.1762	.0276	.2038
27	.0990		.0377		.0613		.0309		.0304		.0300		.0295		.0595		.0291		.0886		.0285		.1171		.0283		.1454		.0276		.1730	.0271	.2001
26½	.0971		.0370		.0601		.0302		.0299		.0294		.0290		.0584		.0285		.0869		.0281		.1150		.0277		.1427		.0271		.1698	.0266	.1964
26	.0953	.0363	.0590	.0297	.0293	.0289	.0284	.0573	.0280	.0853	.0275	.1128	.0272	.1400	.0266	.1666	.0261	.1927															
25½	.0935	.0356	.0579	.0292	.0287	.0283	.0279	.0562	.0275	.0837	.0269	.1106	.0267	.1373	.0261	.1634	.0256	.1890															
25	.0916	.0349	.0567	.0285	.0282	.0278	.0273	.0551	.0269	.0820	.0265	.1085	.0261	.1346	.0256	.1602	.0251	.1853															
24	.0880	.0336	.0544	.0273	.0271	.0266	.0263	.0529	.0258	.0787	.0254	.1041	.0252	.1293	.0245	.1538	.0240	.1778															
23	.0843	.0321	.0522	.0263	.0259	.0255	.0252	.0507	.0248	.0755	.0243	.0998	.0241	.1239	.0235	.1474	.0230	.1704															
22	.0807	.0306	.0500	.0251	.0248	.0244	.0241	.0485	.0237	.0722	.0232	.0954	.0231	.1185	.0225	.1410	.0220	.1630															
21	.0770	.0291	.0483	.0239	.0237	.0233	.0230	.0463	.0226	.0689	.0222	.0911	.0220	.1131	.0215	.1346	.0210	.1556															
20	.0733	.0276	.0468	.0228	.0225	.0221	.0220	.0441	.0215	.0656	.0211	.0867	.0210	.1077	.0204	.1281	.0201	.1482															
15	.0550	.0183	.0211	.0170	.0169	.0166	.0165	.0331	.0161	.0492	.0158	.0650	.0158	.0808	.0153	.0961	.0150	.1111															





## S E C T I O N II.

### *Experiments on the expansion of air in the Manometer.*

WITH respect to order of time, the manometrical experiments were made subsequently to the chief part of the barometrical observations, from which alone an approximate rule had previously been deduced for the measurement of heights: nevertheless, in this paper it seemed to me best, that what related to the expansion of air in one instrument, should immediately succeed the expansion of quicksilver in the other.

The thermometer made use of in these experiments is above four feet long. Its scale extends from  $-4^{\circ}$  to  $+224^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, each degree being more than  $\frac{2}{10}$ ths of an inch: when the barometer stood at 30 inches, its boiling point was fixed in the tin vessel formerly described. Mr. RAMSDEN's thermometers generally rise in the same vessel  $213^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ ; and the long thermometer, being placed in the vessel he makes use of to fix his boiling points, rises only to  $210^{\circ}$ .

The manometers were of various lengths, from four to upwards of eight feet: they consisted of straight tubes,

whose bores were commonly from  $\frac{1}{15}$ th to  $\frac{1}{25}$ th of an inch in diameter. The capacity of the tube was carefully measured, by making a column of quicksilver, about three or four inches in length, move along it from one end to the other. These spaces were severally marked, with a fine edged file, on the tubes; and transferred from them to long slips of paste-board, for the subsequent construction of the scales respectively belonging to each. The bulb, attached to one end of the manometer at the glass house, was of the form of a pear, whose point being occasionally opened, dry or moist air could be readily admitted, and the bulb sealed again, without any sensible alteration in its capacity.

The air was confined by means of a column of quicksilver, long or short, and with the bulb downwards or upwards, according to the nature of the proposed experiment. Here it must be observed that, from the adhesion of the quicksilver to the tube, the instrument will not act truly, except it be in a vertical position; and even then, it is necessary to give it a small degree of motion, to bring the quicksilver into its true place; where it will remain in equilibrio, between the exterior pressure of the atmosphere on one side, and the interior elastic force of the confined air on the other.

All the experiments were made when the barometer was at, or near, 30 inches. When the bulb was downwards, the height of the barometer at the time of observation, augmented, and when upwards, diminished by the number of inches of quicksilver in the tube of the manometer, expressed the density of the confined air.

Pounded ice and water were used to fix a freezing point on the tube; and by means of salt and ice, the air was farther condensed, generally four, and sometimes five or six degrees below zero. The thermometer and manometer were then placed in the tin vessel, among water which was brought into violent ebullition; where having remained a sufficient time, and motion being given to the manometer, a boiling point was marked thereon. After this the fire was removed, and the gradual descents of the piece of quicksilver, corresponding to every 20 degrees of change of temperature in the thermometer, were successively marked on a deal rod applied to the manometer. It is to be observed, that both instruments, while in the water, were in circumstances perfectly similar; that is to say, the ball and bulb were at the bottom of the vessel.

In order to be certain that no air had escaped by the side of the quicksilver during the operation, the manometer was frequently placed a second time in melting

ice. If the barometer had not altered between the beginning and end of the experiment, the quicksilver always became stationary at or near the first mark. If any sudden change had taken place in the weight of the atmosphere during that interval, the same was noted, and allowance made for it in afterwards proportioning the spaces.

Long tubes, with bores truly cylindrical or of any uniform figure, are scarcely ever met with. Such however as were used in these experiments, generally tapered in a pretty regular manner from one end to the other. When the bulb was downwards, and the tube narrowed that way, the column of quicksilver confining the air lengthened in the lower half of the scale, and augmented the pressure above the mean. In the upper half, the column being shortened, the pressure was diminished below the mean. In this case, the observed spaces both ways from the center, were diminished in the inverse ratio of the heights of the barometer at each space, compared with its mean height. If the bore widened towards the bulb when downwards, the observed spaces, each way from the center, were augmented in the same inverse ratio; but in the experiments on air less dense than the atmosphere, the bulb being upwards, the same equation was applied with contrary signs: and if any

extraordinary irregularity took place in the tube, the corresponding spaces were proportioned both ways from that point, whether high or low, that answered to the mean.

The observed and equated manometrical spaces being thus laid down on the paste-board containing the measures of the tube; the  $212^{\circ}$  of the thermometer, in exact proportion to the sections of the bore, were constructed along-side of them: hence the coincidences with each other were easily seen; and the number of thermometrical degrees answering to each manometrical space, readily transferred into a table prepared for the purpose.

I have already had occasion to remark that, from the operations of the barometer alone, an approximate rule, or mean equation, had been obtained for the measurement of heights; but as, among the results, irregularities were now and then met with, doubts naturally arose, whether the equation, instead of being considered as uniform, might not follow an increasing or diminishing progression? Without an infinite number of observations, in very different temperatures above and below the zero of the scale, this point could not possibly be determined by the barometer: wherefore the first and chief thing proposed to be discovered by the manometrical experiments was, whether common air, occasionally rendered

more or less dense, by the addition or subtraction of weight, expanded equally with quicksilver, when affected with the same degrees of heat? According to the ratio that took place between the expansion of quicksilver and air, above and below zero, I intended to regulate the barometrical equation already found, without regarding the proportion of the bulb to the bore of the manometer; or in other words, without paying any attention to the actual expansion of the air confined in that instrument.

But after a great number of these first experiments had been made, it was judged proper to compute the actual expansion of 1000 equal parts of air in the manometer, from a heat of  $212^{\circ}$ ; wherefore, in the last, the accurate capacity of the bulb, with respect to the bore, was determined; at the same time that the original mode of comparing the thermometrical with the manometrical spaces, was still adhered to.

It is easy to conceive in experiments of this very delicate nature, part of which, namely those on air less dense than the atmosphere, were extremely difficult and even laborious, that mathematical exactness was not to be looked for; and that, notwithstanding every possible precaution was taken, irregularities would occur. These, however, were not so numerous as might have been  
I expected,

expected, nor any way so great as to render the research fruitless: for a few of that kind being thrown out of the total number, the mean of the others, which were very consistent among themselves, served to prove beyond the possibility of doubt, that the expansions of common air did not keep pace with the dilatations of quicksilver. The manometrical space, answering to the  $20^{\circ}$  of the thermometer between  $52^{\circ}$  and  $72^{\circ}$ , was always found to be greater than any other  $20^{\circ}$  of the scale. Here it is to be understood, that I do not pretend to have ascertained the exact point in that space where the maximum falls: the mean corresponds to the 62d degree, and yet I am inclined to think that it is somewhat lower, perhaps it may be about the 57th: from this point, the condensations of air downwards, and its expansions upwards, follow a diminishing progression, compared with the condensations and dilatations of quicksilver. The manometrical are equal to the thermometrical spaces, in two points of the scale; namely, at or near the freezing temperature on one side, and between the  $112^{\circ}$  and  $132^{\circ}$  degrees of the scale on the other. At the zero and boiling point they are less than the thermometrical spaces. Whether this maximum of expansion of air, compared with that of quicksilver, be owing to moisture, or any thing



thing else mixed with the former, which is brought into its greatest degree of action, about the temperature of  $57^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, must be left to the investigations of future experimenters: I only relate things as I found them after many repetitions, without being able to discover any material difference in the results, even when the air was rendered more or less dense by an addition to, or subtraction from, the weight wherewith it was loaded. The thermometrical, compared with the manometrical spaces, will therefore appear as in the following table.

Spaces of the quicksilver  
thermometer, FAHREN-  
HEIT's scale.

Spaces of the manometer,  
measured in degrees of  
FAHRENHEIT.

°	°
212	212
20	17.6
<hr/>	<hr/>
192	194.4
20	18.2
<hr/>	<hr/>
172	176.2
20	18.8
<hr/>	<hr/>
152	157.4
20	19.4
<hr/>	<hr/>
132	138.0
20	20.0
<hr/>	<hr/>
112	118.0
20	20.8
<hr/>	<hr/>
92	97.2
20	21.6
<hr/>	<hr/>
72	75.6
20	22.6
<hr/>	<hr/>
52	53.0
20	21.6
<hr/>	<hr/>
32	31.4
20	20.0
<hr/>	<hr/>
12	11.4
0	0
<hr/>	<hr/>

*Experiments, for determining the actual expansion of common air, in the manometer, affected by the heat of 212°.*

For this purpose it became necessary to ascertain, in every manometer, the exact proportion between the capacity of the tube and that of its bulb. This was done, by weighing the quicksilver that filled them respectively, in a balance that was sensible to a very small fraction of a grain. The contents of the bulb, and that part of the tube between it and zero, expressed in grains, was called the air in experiment. The apparent expansion of that air was measured, by the grains that filled the several sections of the tube between zero and the boiling point; the sum being the total expansion or increase of volume, from a heat of 212°. The apparent expansion, thus found, was again augmented for the dilatation of the tube, on the following principles.

In the first part of this paper I have shewn, that solid glass rods dilate much less than barometer tubes. The mean between Mr. SMEATON'S and my experiments, gives  $\frac{14}{1000}$  of an inch for the longitudinal extension of every foot of these tubes, by 212°. From the rate of going of a clock, for near a year, whose pendulum rod is solid glass, its dilatation seems to be one-third part of a steel rod,

or  $\frac{58}{10000}$  on a foot, by  $212^{\circ}$ . Now, as the manometers resemble solid rods much more than they do barometer tubes, it is probable their dilatation, even allowing for the greater extension of the bulb, would not exceed  $\frac{6}{1000}$ ths of an inch on a foot, or  $\frac{1}{1000}$ th part on every two inches. In this ratio I have therefore augmented the apparent, to obtain the true, capacity of each manometer. The equation, amounting to about  $\frac{1}{210}$ th part of the whole, being less than the common error of such complicated observations, might in fact have been entirely omitted, without producing any material alteration in the results.

Having, in this manner, computed the total increased volume of any number of equal parts of air (according to the capacity of the bulb and tube in grains) and very often likewise the partial expansions for intermediate temperatures, expressed by the contents of the corresponding sections of the tube, I then found the ratio answering to 1000 equal parts, which, being divided by the degrees of difference of temperature, gave the mean rate for the whole scale, or the particular rate for any intermediate section of it.

The experiments, considered in this way, are distributed into four classes, whereof the results are comprehended in the four following tables. The first shews the expansion of air, whose density was much greater than that of the

common atmosphere. The second, which is divided into two sets, contains those on air that sustained a pressure less than the atmosphere. In the third class, a very short column of quicksilver being employed to confine the air, its density differed little from that we commonly breathe in: this class is likewise subdivided into two sets, and it will hereafter be made use of to regulate the equation depending on the temperature of the air, in the application of the barometer. The fourth and last class of experiments, were made on air of the common density, artificially moistened by the admission, sometimes of steam, and at others of water, into the bulb; it is accordingly distinguished into two sets.

TABLE I. Results of experiments on the expansion of air, whose mean density was equal to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  atmospheres.

N <sup>o</sup>	Height of the barometer.	Inches of quicksilver confining the air.	Density in inches.	Total expansion of 1000 equal parts of air by $212^{\circ}$ .	Mean rate for each degree.
1	29.7	+ 72.	101.7	451.54	2.12991
2	29.7	+ 62.6	92.3	423.23	1.99637
3	29.62	+ 50.84	80.46	412.09	1.94382
4	29.66	+ 24.88	54.54	439.87	2.07486
5	29.66	+ 20.05	49.71	443.24	2.09075
Mean,*			75.74	434.00	2.04717



TABLE II. Results of experiments on the expansion of air of the density of five-sixths of the common atmosphere; and of others on air that was extremely rare, being only pressed with about one-fifth of an atmosphere.

N <sup>o</sup>	Height of the barom.	Inches of quick-silver.	Density in inches.	Total expansion of 1000 equal parts of air by 212°.	Mean rate for each degree.	Expansion for intermediate temperatures.							Total expansion.	Mean rate.
						From 0 to 32°.	32° to 52°.	52° to 72°.	72° to 92°.	92° to 132°.	132° to 172°.	172° to 212°.		
						Not observed.								
1	29.85	—5.44	24.41	495.455	2.33705	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
2	29.76	—3.05	26.71	504.340	2.37896	2.27190	2.41666	2.64060	2.55200	2.46040	2.31850	2.20748	—	—
3	29.79	—0.53	29.26	470.32	2.21849	1.90437	2.48150	2.63150	2.59650	2.15050	2.12000	2.10925	—	—
4	30.09	—5.43	24.66	469.07	2.21259	2.32688	2.53450	2.66250	2.24800	2.25425	2.05325	1.83525	—	—
5	29.93	—9.63	20.30	479.20	2.26038	2.14750	2.49500	2.59850	2.24700	2.25950	2.21375	2.11850	—	—
Mean,			25.17	483.677	2.28140	2.10266	2.48191	2.63327	2.41087	2.28116	2.17637	2.06762	—	—

First set.														
6	Experiment in a heated room in Philipot lane, February 25, barometer 30.°03—4.82=25.21 the density of the air, —													
				on 113½ from	48½ to 162								244.604	2.15510
				51½	48½	100	162						126.311	2.45264
				62									118.293	1.90800
7	In Philipot lane; tube with a small bore; barometer 30.°03—23.2=6.77 the density. The air had been heated red-hot in the bulb before it was sealed, —													
				on 113½ from	48½ to 162								138.75	1.22247
				51	48½	101½	162						71.93	1.41039
				60½	101½	162							66.82	1.10446
	The expansion for 212°, at the mean rate, would be —													
													259.164	—
8	In Pulteney street, February 28th; with the same manometer that had been used in the same experiment in Philipot lane, barometer 30.°08—23.2=6.88 the density of the air, —													
				on 212	—	—	—						330.487	1.55890
				32 above zero.									44.574	1.39294
				20 from 32 to 52									37.771	1.88855
				80	52	132							139.784	1.74730
				60	132	192							94.804	1.58007
				20	192	212							13.554	0.67770
	The expansion for 212°, at the mean rate, would be —													
													141.504	0.78613
				on 180 from 32 to 212									17.845	0.89225
				20	32	52							25.943	1.29715
				20	52	72							20.911	1.04550
				20	72	92							14.937	0.74685
				20	92	112							14.228	0.71140
				20	112	132							14.151	0.70755
				20	132	152							14.150	0.70750
				20	152	172							12.264	0.61320
				20	172	192							7.075	0.35375
				20	192	212							166.660	—
	The Expansion for 212° at the mean rate would be, —													
													252.104	1.18917
	Mean of the three means; density 6.46, expansion for 212°, —													

Second set.														
9	In Pulteney street, April 19th; tube with a large bore, barometer 29.8—24.08=5.72 the density of the air, which had been heated red-hot in the bulb before it was sealed, —													







TABLE III. Results of experiments on the expansion of air of the density of the common atmosphere.

	N <sup>o</sup>	Height of the barom.	Inches of quicksilver confining the air.	Density in inches.	Total expansion of 1000 equal parts of air by 212°.	Mean rates for each degree.
First set; common air.	1	29.95	+ 1.57	31.52	483.89	2.28250
	2	30.07	+ 0.70	30.77	482.10	2.27406
	3	29.48	+ 0.42	29.90	480.74	2.26764
	4	29.90	+ 0.83	30.73	485.86	2.29182
	5	29.96	+ 0.96	30.92	489.45	2.30870
	6	29.90	+ 0.65	30.55	476.04	2.24547
	7	29.95	+ 0.65	30.60	487.55	2.29976
Second set; common air heated red-hot	8	30.07	+ 0.53	30.60	482.80	2.27736
	9	29.48	+ 0.52	30.00	489.47	2.30871
Mean				30.62	484.21	2.28401

The total expansion 484.21 being divided into parts proportionable to the manometrical spaces, measured in degrees of the quicksilver thermometer, as already given; we have the following expansions for intermediate temperatures, the rates for every 10° below 92° being found by interpolation.

Thermo- metrical spaces.	Manome- trical spaces.	Total Expan- sions for degrees above zero, 1000 parts.	Difference of expan- sions, 1000 parts.	Rate for each degree, 1000 parts.
212. <sup>o</sup>	212. <sup>o</sup>	484.210		
192.	194.4	444.011	40.199	2.00995
172.	176.2	402.452	41.559	2.07795
152.	157.4	359.503	42.949	2.14745
132.	138.	315.193	44.310	2.21550
112.	118.	269.513	45.680	2.28400
92.	97.2	222.006	47.507	2.37535
82.	86.6	197.795	24.211	2.42110
72.	75.6	172.671	25.124	2.51240
62.	64.4	147.090	25.581	2.55810
52.	53.	121.053	26.037	2.60370
42.	42.	95.929	25.124	2.51240
32.	31.4	71.718	24.211	2.42110
22.	21.2	48.421	23.297	2.32970
12.	11.4	26.038	22.383	2.23830
0.	—	—	26.038	2.16983

Hence  $222.006 - 26.038 = 195.968 = 2.4496$ , or  $2.45$ ,  
is the mean rate of expansion for the  $80^{\circ}$  comprehended  
between  $12^{\circ}$  and  $92^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT.



TABLE IV. Results of experiments on the expansion of air, artificially moistened, by the admission of steam, and sometimes water, into the bulb of the manometer.

	N <sup>o</sup>	Height of the barom.	Inches of quicksilver confining the air.	Density in inches.	Total expansion of 1000 equal parts of air by 212°.	Mean rate for each degree.	Expansion for intermediate temperatures.									
							from zero to 32°.	32° to 52°	52° to 72°	72° to 92°.	92° to 112°.	112° to 132°	132° to 152°.	152° to 172°	172° to 192°	192° to 212°
First set: steam admitted into the bulb before it was sealed.	1	30.16	+ 1.6	31.76	—	—	2.059375	2.60700	3.02650	3.38050	4.18300	6.48000	8.67750	11.93600	16.85050	—
	2	29.97	+ 2.2	32.17	1409.04	6.64642	2.20250	2.59250	2.90950	3.67650	5.16700	6.93300	10.17500	10.64200	16.57850	8.25400
	3	30.00	+ 2.2	32.20	1350.10	6.36840	2.26875	2.59100	3.04900	3.77550	4.36900	7.60500	8.94400	10.42950	11.92200	11.69000
	4	30.43	+ 1.92	32.35	—	—	2.20875	2.51450	2.74700	3.25500	3.73700	5.91350	9.18950	11.57550	25.88650	—
	5	30.2	+ 1.6	31.80	1999.71	9.43259	2.361875	2.51300	2.96400	3.84750	5.76100	7.19450	12.29850	16.69750	19.29500	25.23550
	6	30.32	+ 2.37	32.69	2576.16	12.15169	2.16250	2.55350	3.11600	3.72300	5.53600	7.83900	12.74100	16.74600	27.84350	45.25000
Second set: a drop of cold water admitted into the bulb before it was sealed.	7	30.2	+ 1.3	31.50	1135.48	5.35604	2.22594	2.74450	2.90500	3.47750	5.41900	6.16650	7.98850	8.58950	10.93600	4.98600
	8	30.06	+ 3.2	33.26	—	—	2.54062	2.63350	2.80850	3.78700	4.60750	Tube broken.				
	9	30.32	+ 1.6	31.92	1538.31	7.25618	2.02156	2.54250	3.22500	3.76500	5.41700	6.79250	9.14350	9.71100	13.75550	19.93270
Mean,				32.18	1668.13	7.86854	2.22799	2.58800	2.97228	3.63194	4.91072	6.86550	9.89494	12.04087	17.88344	19.22470
Mean of the second, third, and seventh,				31.96	1298.20	6.12362	2.23239	2.64267	2.95450	3.64317	4.98500	6.90150	9.03583	9.88700	13.14550	8.31000
Mean of the fifth, sixth, and ninth,				32.14	2038.06	9.61349	2.18198	2.53633	3.10167	3.77850	5.57133	7.27533	11.39500	14.38483	20.29800	30.13940

By N<sup>o</sup> 1. the total expansion for 192° is 1208.72, whence the mean rate is 6.29542.

4.

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192°

1367.05,

—

—

7.12005.

8.

—

—

112°

358.03,

—

—

3.19669.





From the experiments of the first class it appears, that 1000 equal parts of common air, loaded with two atmospheres and a half, being affected with a heat of  $212^{\circ}$ , expands 434 of those parts; that is to say, in its dilated state, it occupies a space bearing, to that which it originally filled, the proportion of 1434 to 1000: hence the mean rate of expansion of air of that extraordinary density is 2.04717 for each degree.

From the first set of the second class of experiments it appears, that 1000 equal parts of air, pressed only with  $\frac{5}{6}$ ths of an atmosphere, and suffering a heat of  $212^{\circ}$ , expands nearly 484 of those parts, whereof the mean rate for each degree is 2.28140. The maximum corresponds to that section of the scale between  $52^{\circ}$  and  $72^{\circ}$ ; and the rate for the extremes is less than the mean.

But in the second set of this class, when the confined air was rendered so extremely rare as to be pressed with only one-fifth of an atmosphere, in which case there was a necessity for heating it red-hot before it was possible to make the quicksilver hang in any tube of a moderate length, the expansion of 1000 equal parts of air is, by the seventh and eighth experiments, diminished to about two-thirds of the usual quantity; and by the ninth, it is considerably less, amounting only to 141.5 for the  $180^{\circ}$ .



comprehended between freezing and boiling, or 0.78613 for each degree. The maximum still corresponds to the space between  $52^{\circ}$  and  $72^{\circ}$ ; and the minimum is constantly at the boiling point.

From these three last experiments it would seem, that the particles of air may be so far removed from each other, by the diminution of pressure, as to lose a very great part of their elastic force; since, in the ninth experiment, the heat of boiling water applied for an hour together, could only make it occupy a space which, compared with what it filled at freezing, bears the proportion of 1141.5 to 1000.

From the third class of experiments it appears, that common air, pressed with a single atmosphere, whether taken into the manometer in its natural state, or heated red-hot therein, has the same expansion with air of only five-sixths of that density: for 1000 equal parts of this air expanded 484.21 from  $212^{\circ}$  of heat, whereof the mean rate is 2.28401 for each degree. By comparing this result with that of the first class, and again with that deduced from the second set of the second class, it would seem, that the elastic force of common air is greater than when its density is considerably augmented or diminished by an addition to, or subtraction from, the weight

with which it is loaded<sup>(f)</sup>; for, in the first case, it bears the proportion of 484 to 434; and in the last, it is (from the

(f) This difference between the elastic force of common air, and that which is artificially rendered more or less dense, by the addition or subtraction of weight, particularly the latter, is truly remarkable, and contradicts the experience of BOYLE, MARRIOTTE, &c. It could not arise from the adhesion of the quicksilver to the tube, though in the dense experiments a column of 72 inches was once made use of; because the constant motion given to the manometer before the spaces were marked, must either have prevented any irregularity whatever, or made the apparent expansion sometimes too great, and at others too little. But the rare experiments serve to put this matter out of doubt; for if the adhesion of the quicksilver to the tube had tended to lessen the apparent expansion of the air, beneath the truth in one case, it must have had a direct contrary effect in the other, and augmented it above the truth, which it evidently doth not.

These experiments on the expansion of air less dense than the atmosphere, were extremely difficult and troublesome; and it was not till after several fruitless attempts that, with the assistance of Dr. LIND, an apparatus was prepared for making them with sufficient accuracy. The vessel employed for this purpose was made of the brass tube of a large telescope, near four inches in diameter; it was divided into four pieces, which, when screwed together, made a pot of six feet in height. This was mounted on a platform laid over the area rails, for the reception of the manometer, which was placed therein, with the bulb uppermost, the lower extremity of the tube passing through a socket at the bottom of the vessel, and then through a collar composed of many thicknesses of flannel. By means of a brass plate and three long screws, the collar was made to embrace the tube so closely, as to suffer very little water to pass: such as did issue, oozed off along the sides of a paper funnel, bound round the end of the tube, without entering into the bore. In this position, it required some degree of force to push the manometer up, or draw it down, till the top of the quicksilver confining the air, just appeared without the collar, so as to admit the spaces to be measured, from a fixed point marked on the tube. The vessel being filled with boiling water, was kept to that temperature by means of lamps suspended.

the mean of three experiments) as 484 to 252, when pressed with only one-fifth of an atmosphere.

The

pendent around it. Two thermometers were made use of; the long one, whose ball stood at the bottom; and a short one at the top, that descended no lower than just to be immersed in the water. By some of the first of these experiments, the lamps not being placed directly at the bottom, water was perceived to be a very bad conductor of heat; for it would boil violently at the top, and the short thermometer there would mark  $212^{\circ}$ , while the long one would only mark  $185^{\circ}$  or  $190^{\circ}$  at the bottom. By slow degrees the heat would nevertheless descend, and in the space of fifteen or twenty minutes the whole column would become of the same uniform temperature. But when the apparatus was adapted for experiments on air denser than the atmosphere, in which case a plate of tin was folded over the hole at the bottom, that it might be placed on a strong fire, the heat was then greatest below, and the long thermometer would mark upwards of  $215^{\circ}$ , while the short one stood at  $209^{\circ}$  or  $210^{\circ}$ . By desisting from blowing the fire, or removing a part of it, the particles of water suffering the greatest heat would ascend, mix with the rest, and for some little time make the whole column of an uniform temperature. But the fire being totally removed, the top of the column in cooling was always hottest; wherefore, in all these experiments, whether on dense or rare air, great care was taken to mix the water thoroughly.

From Mr. DE LUC's book it appears, that M. AMONTONS found the effect of heat on the air confined in his thermometer, which seems to have been the same sort of instrument with the manometer, proportionable to the weight with which it was loaded. By this he could not mean that, being of a double density, it had twice the expansion. I apprehend it must here be understood, that the spaces the air occupied, were inversely as the weights. That being pressed with a double weight, it only filled half the space; or with half the weight, a double space. This is no doubt nearly, though not accurately, the law that it follows. From these experiments it appears, that there is little difference in the actual expansion or elastic force of air, pressed with an atmosphere + or — one-third part; yet, when it is rendered extremely rare, its elasticity is wonderfully diminished. There seems likewise to be a visible diminution in its expansion, when loaded with two atmospheres and a half. Some of the tubes that I used were near nine feet

The total expansion 484.21 resulting from the third class of experiments, which are very consistent among themselves, being divided into parts proportionable to the manometrical spaces, as measured in degrees of the quicksilver thermometer, we have the expansions for intermediate temperatures, expressed at the bottom of the third table, where, it is to be observed, the rates for every 10° below 92° were found by interpolation.

Now as barometrical observations will probably never be made in a temperature higher than 92° in the shade, nor in one lower than 12°, if we subtract 26.038, the expansion answering to 12°, from 222.006, that which corresponds to 92°, we shall have 195.968 for the 80 intermediate degrees; or 2.45 for the mean rate on each. This equation, compared with Mr. DE LUC's, bears the proportion of 245 to 210, which is a difference of  $\frac{35}{100000}$  on every degree, or one-seventh part of the whole: and though this rate will be found hereafter to

feet long. Had it been possible to have managed them of double or triple that length, so as to have admitted the air to be pressed with a column of 18 or 20 feet of quicksilver, I am persuaded the diminution in the expansion of air of that extraordinary density would have been much more perceptible.

Mr. AMONTONS found, that the condensation of air in his thermometers kept pace with that of spirit of wine, which we are told follows a decreasing progression with respect to quicksilver: wherefore his experiments agree with these, in making the condensation of air below 57° follow a decreasing progression, when compared with that of quicksilver.

exceed that deduced from the operations of the barometer in extreme temperatures; yet they agree exceedingly well with each other for the mean heat of the air, when the barometer will come most frequently into use.

The fourth class of experiments are all that now remain to be mentioned. The bare inspection of TABLE IV. will shew, how greatly superior the elastic force of moist is to that of dry air. It is true indeed, that two kinds of irregularities present themselves among the results: first, with regard to the total expansion for  $212^{\circ}$ ; and secondly, as to the greatest exertion of the elastic force, which sometimes seems to have taken place before the air has acquired the heat of boiling water. The first is easily accounted for: it must have arisen from different proportions of moisture being admitted into the same quantity of air, which there was no possibility of ascertaining, the bulbs and their apertures being of very different dimensions. With regard to the second irregularity, I am rather inclined to think that it may have proceeded from error of observation, it being difficult to determine the accurate temperature near boiling; especially when any part of the air rose above the top of the vessel, which was sometimes the case, notwithstanding its extraordinary height. Be that as it may, a very uniform encreasing progression will be perceived to take place, from

from the zero of FAHRENHEIT, as far as  $152^{\circ}$  or  $172^{\circ}$ ; and even to the boiling point, in those which I esteem the best experiments. By adhering to the mean result it will appear that air, however moist, having that moisture condensed or separated from it by cold, its expansion differs not sensibly from that of dry air. Thus the rate for  $32^{\circ}$  below freezing 2.2799, is nearly the same as in dry air; but no sooner doth the moisture begin to dissolve and mix with the air, by the addition of  $20^{\circ}$  of heat, than the difference is perceptible: for instead of 2.46675, the rate for  $20^{\circ}$  above  $32^{\circ}$  in dry air, we have 2.588 for that which is moist. In the next step of  $20^{\circ}$ , the rate for dry air is 2.5809; whereas that for moist is 2.97. In this manner the progression goes on continually encreasing, so as to give 7.86854 for the mean rate on each degree of the  $212^{\circ}$ , which is near three times and a half the expansion of dry air. And lastly, the rate for the  $20^{\circ}$  between  $192^{\circ}$  and  $212^{\circ}$ , is twice and one-half the mean rate, and about nine times that which corresponds to the zero of the scale: but if the comparison is drawn from the mean of the fifth, sixth, and ninth experiments, as being probably nearest the truth, the total expansion of moist, will be more than four times that of dry air; and the rate for the temperature at boiling,

will be nearly fifteen times that which corresponds to the zero of FAHRENHEIT.

I am aware it will be alledged, that the proportion of moisture admitted into the manometer in these experiments, is greater than what can ever take place in nature; and therefore, in order to be able to judge of the degrees of expansion the medium suffers in its more or less dense, and more or less moist states, that not only air near the surface of the earth, but likewise that found at the top of some very high mountain, should have been made use of. I grant all this: but on the other hand it must be remembered, that these experiments are very recently finished; that a good hygrometer (if such can ever be obtained) a great deal of leisure time, and the vicinity of high mountains, were all necessary for the carrying of such a scheme into execution.

It is for these reasons, and in hopes that other people will, sooner or later, investigate this matter still farther, not only by experiments made on the expansion of air, taken at different heights above the level of the sea in middle latitudes, but likewise on that appertaining to the humid and dry regions of the atmosphere towards the equator and poles, that I have been induced to hasten the communication of this paper. In the mean time having proved, beyond the possibility of doubt, that a wonderful  
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difference doth exist between the elastic force of dry and moist air, I may be allowed hereafter to reason by analogy, on the probable effects this will produce, in measuring heights with the barometer; leaving it to others, much better qualified, to consider how far it will affect astronomical refractions. In the following section I shall therefore give an account of the barometrical observations made in Britain, and compare them with some others made in distant countries.

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### S E C T I O N III.

*An account of the barometrical observations made in Britain, wherein they are compared with some others of the same kind made in distant countries.*

THE revival of the inquiries into that curious and useful branch of philosophy, whereby vertical heights are determined to a great degree of exactness, by the pressure of the atmosphere alone, we owe to Mr. DE LUC; who hath undoubtedly removed many of the difficulties that formerly occurred in the application of the barometer, and thereby encouraged others to attempt to overcome, some part at least, of such as remain.



If the rule deduced from the observations on Saleve had been absolutely free from exceptions, and if there had not been particular points in the theory concerning which the ingenious author himself seems to have entertained doubts, it would probably have been universally adopted, without undergoing any very scrupulous investigation; but the observations made at Sun-rising on Saleve, gave results that were defective, or less than the real height. In certain cases, the equation for high temperatures, remote from the zero of the scale, appeared to follow a diminishing, and in others an increasing progression. Hence arose some causes of uncertainty, with respect to the specific gravities of quicksilver and air, and the relative expansion of one compared with the other; especially when the atmosphere happened to have more or less moisture dissolved in it. It was doubtless from considerations of this sort, that Mr. DE LUC, in his book, so strongly recommends the making of numerous sets of observations, in different countries; that, by the united labours of all, this interesting part of natural philosophy, might be brought still nearer to perfection.

With this general object in view, I am now to give an account of the principal barometrical observations that have been made in Britain, on heights determined geometrically with great care. These heights are classed in  
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the following list in six sets, according to the districts of the country wherein they are situated, and nearly in the order of time in which the observations were made.

		Height in feet.
No. 1. Heights in and near London.	{ St. Paul's Church-yard ( <i>g</i> ), North-side, and iron gallery } over the dome, — — —	281
	Top of Paul's-stairs, and the said gallery, —	324
	Top of Scotland-yard wharf, and the dining-room of } the Spaniard on Hampstead-heath, —	422
	Great Pulteney-street, and the said dining-room, —	352
	Pagoda in Kew gardens, — — —	116½
	Gun wharf in Woolwich Warren, and uppermost story } of Shooter's-hill inn ( <i>b</i> ), — — —	444

(*g*) Mr. BANKS, assisted by other gentlemen, measured very accurately with a line the height of the ball of St. Paul's above the floor of the church, which was found to agree, exceedingly near, with that taken from the engraved section of the building. The distance of the ball from the dining-room of the Spaniard, was found by a base measured on Hampstead-heath; and their relative heights by the angle of depression of the ball, taken with the astronomical quadrant from the said dining-room. The heights of Paul's-stairs and Scotland-yard wharf, with respect to each other, were found by measuring from them severally to the surface of high water in the Thames. And the relative heights of the church-yard and floor of the church with respect to the stairs, and of Pulteney-street with regard to the wharf, were obtained by levelling to them respectively.

(*b*) The height of Shooter's-hill inn, above Woolwich, was found by a base measured in the meadows from the Warren eastward. Lord MULGRAVE, Mr. BANKS, and Dr. SOLANDER, assisted in the geometrical operations; as did Dr. BLAGDEN, Mess. DE LUC and LLOYD, in the barometrical observations.

Feet.

N <sup>o</sup> 2. near Tay- bridge in Perthshire.	{ Station at the East-gate of Castle Menzie's gardens near the village of Weem, and top of Weem Craig, }			700 $\frac{1}{4}$
	{ The said station, and top of Bolfracks Cairn, — }			1076 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ The said station, and top of Dull Craig, — }			1244 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ The said station, and top of Knock Farle, — }			1364 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ The said station, and that at the rivulet of Glenmore, below the South observatory on Schihallien, — }			1279 $\frac{1}{4}$
	{ The said station, and South observatory, — — }			2098
N <sup>o</sup> 3. near Lanark.	{ The said station, and Western summit of Schihallien, }			3281
	{ Station at the rivulet of Glenmore, and the South ob- servatory, — — — — }			818 $\frac{3}{4}$
	{ Level of the Clyde at Lanark-bridge, and station in the garden at Lanark, — — }			362 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Ditto level, and top of Stonebyre-hill, — — }			654
N <sup>o</sup> 4. near Edin- burgh.	{ Robinhood's well, before Carmichael-house, and top of Tinto, four feet below the summit of the Cairn, }			1642 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Ditto well, and West end of Carmichael-hill, — }			451 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Leith pier-head, and top of the Calton-hill, — — }			344
	{ Leith pier, and summit of Arthur's Seat, — — }			803
N <sup>o</sup> 5. near Lin- house.	{ Leith pier, and Kirk-yetton Cairn, on the East-end of the Pentland hills, — — — — }			1544
	{ Calton hill, and ditto Cairn, — — — — }			1200
	{ Level of Hawk-hill study, and top of Arthur Seat, }			702 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Hawk-hill observatory, and bottom of the little rock on Arthur Seat, $7\frac{1}{4}$ feet below the summit, — }			68 $\frac{1}{4}$
	{ Hawk-hill garden-door, and ditto little rock, — }			730 $\frac{1}{4}$
N <sup>o</sup> 6. near Carnar- von in North Wales.	{ Linhouse, and East Cairn-hill, 5 feet below the summit, }			1176 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Ditto, 18 feet below the top, — — }			1165 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Linhouse, and West Cairn-hill, 11 feet below the top, }			1178 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Ditto, and Corftown-hill, 4 feet below the top, — }			386 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Corftown-hill, and West Cairn-hill, — — }			792
N <sup>o</sup> 6. near Carnar- von in North Wales.	{ Ditto, and East Cairn-hill, — — — — }			776 $\frac{1}{2}$
	{ Carnarvon Quay, and Snowdon Peak, — — — — }			3555
	{ Ditto, and summit of Moel Eilio, — — — — }			2371

To enter into a minute detail of the geometrical operations, whereby the whole of these vertical heights were

were determined, would be extremely tedious and uninteresting. That some idea may however be formed of the degree of accuracy with which they were ascertained, it will be sufficient to observe, that the requisite angles were taken with an astronomical quadrant of a foot radius, made by Mr. Sisson, and curiously adapted for the measurement of horizontal or base angles; which, as well as those of the vertical kind, might always be determined thereby to within ten seconds of the truth. The bases were measured with care; and, in order to ascertain the distances, the three angles of each triangle were, as often as possible, actually observed with the quadrant. That the variation of the line of collimation of the instrument, which was found to alter in carrying, might occasion no error, one or more of the angles of elevation, at each station, were taken on the arc of excess, as well as on the quadrantal arc. In all cases, the usual <sup>(i)</sup> allowances were made for curvature and refraction: and for the correction of the last, sometimes the angles of de-

(i) If the square of the distance be divided by the diameter of the earth, the quotient will give the curvature of the globe on that distance, or the excess of the apparent above the true level: and, by Mr. MASKELYNE's rule, the square of the distance being divided by the diameter of the earth, augmented by one-fourth part, we have the allowance for curvature and refraction; which last is supposed to raise the object, by an angle equal to that of a great circle subtended by one-tenth part of the distance.

pression as well as of elevation were taken. When time would permit, the geometrical operations were repeated at the first stations; or the angles of elevation were observed from some new point connected with the first, and whose relative height, with respect to the others, was known. Small altitudes were occasionally determined by levelling from one station to the other.

To prove that the vertical heights, assigned to the places in the preceding list, are exceedingly near the truth, I need only mention the following instances, by way of confirmation. In 1771, with the assistance of Dr. LIND and his friend Mr. HOY, I measured a base from the observatory of Hawk-hill westward, whereby the height of the summit of Arthur's Seat, above the telescope of the Hawk-hill quadrant, in its horizontal position, was found to be 685.66 feet. In 1775, these gentlemen levelled, three several times, from the summit downwards to the said telescope; and found the vertical distance to be, by the first operation, 686.47 feet; by the second, 684.43; and by the third, 685.25. This last, which, from the great care that was used, they considered as the best, differs only three-tenths of a foot from the geometrical result. They afterwards continued the operation of levelling from Hawk-hill to the pier of Leith, and having repeated it twice, with a difference of only two inches between

between the results, they found the mean descent to be 117.38 feet: hence Arthur's Seat is above Leith pier, by the mode of levelling, 802.66; and by the mixed method 803 feet.

In 1774, when the astronomer-royal was carrying on the Society's experiments for ascertaining the attraction of Schihallien, I found, from my own geometrical operations, depending on a base measured in the plain near Taybridge, the Western summit of the mountain to be 1183 feet above the South observatory.

Of this height, the effect of curvature and refraction amounted to 28.86 feet, on the distance of Bolfracks Cairn from the observatory; and to 38 feet, on the distance of the said Cairn from the summit of Schihallien. The result of these operations I communicated to Mr. MASKELYNE, before his trigonometrical operations were begun. From the data which he hath since been so obliging as to furnish me with, depending on the base in Glenmore at the bottom of Schihallien, and the angles of elevation taken from the Southern extremity of that base, the Western summit of the mountain is 1186.6 feet above the South observatory. But if the triangle that served to connect the station of the barometer in that valley with the others, and the angles of elevation taken from the same station are made use of, the difference

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ference of height will be 1183.33 feet. Lastly, Mr. MASKELYNE's result, from the triangles on the North-side of the mountain, makes it 1180. The mean of these three 1183.31 feet, is the height of the Western summit of the mountain above the South observatory, which only exceeds my height by one-third of a foot. Here it is to be observed, that from the vicinity of these triangles to the mountain, and the shortness of the sides, the greatest curvature amounted only to 16 or 17 inches, which consequently made the effect of refraction next to nothing. This near agreement between the results seems therefore to prove, that the mode of computation for curvature and refraction, made use of in the Taybridge observations, is just.

By the first angles of elevation, taken from the station of the barometer in Glenmore, the Western summit of Schihallien is 2001.88 feet above it; from which, if we deduct 1183.33, there remains 815.55 for the height of the South observatory above the said station: but if the last angles of elevation at the station of the barometer are made use of, the height between it and the observatory comes out 818.97, whereof the mean is 818.76 feet. Though these instances are of themselves sufficient to prove, that the geometrical heights may be safely depended upon; yet, as an example of the method that

was always made use of, I shall annex to this paper, a plan of the triangles and detail of the operations for obtaining the height of Snowdon; because that mountain, at the same time that it is the highest I have measured, is, from its situation, more likely to be visited, and to have experiments repeated upon it, than the remote hills of the North. I now proceed to give some account of the barometrical observations.

The heights in and near London being so very inconsiderable, it was easily foreseen, that nothing conclusive could be drawn from observations made on them alone. It was, however, natural enough to try, even on these, whether the rule we had been furnished with would answer? A small height of 41 feet 4 inches, which, without inconveniency, could be recurred to at all times of the day, and all seasons of the year, was the first that was made use of. St. Paul's, Hampstead, Kew pagoda, and Shooter's-hill, were the next. The mean results of many observations on the three first, and of several on Shooter's-hill, were found to be defective. In general the coldest observations, made in the morning and evening, when the temperatures at the two stations differed least from each other, answered best. In the hottest part of the day, when that difference was the greatest, the results were most defective.



Some months spent in Scotland in the summer of 1774, afforded opportunities of making barometrical observations on hills of various heights, from three or four hundred, to upwards of three thousand feet, as hath been exhibited in the preceding list. That season was remarkably cold and wet; wherefore, in these observations, the mean temperature of the air in the shade was commonly about  $55^{\circ}$ . The hottest never exceeded  $63^{\circ}$  in the plain; and the coldest, namely those on the highest mountains, were generally from  $43^{\circ}$  to  $48^{\circ}$ .

From the defect found in the results of these observations, which, with respect to temperature, correspond to the mean and hottest of those made at Sun-rising on Salve, and without any exception whatever, I could easily discover, either that a much greater equation than what the rule directed, must be applied for each degree of heat above the zero of the scale; or, that the zero itself would fall considerably lower than  $39^{\circ}74$ , where Mr. DE LUC's formula, adapted to English measures, hath fixed it. This first step towards a correction of the rule, naturally pointed out the second thing to be aimed at, namely, the obtaining of a sufficient number of cold observations, near the zero, and as far as possible below it, that the equation might disappear entirely, and even come to be applied with the contrary sign. Of this kind the winter

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seasons of 1774 and 1775 afforded a few on the small heights in and near the metropolis; but the best I have been furnished with are those which Dr. LIND, assisted by Mr. HOY, was so obliging as to make on Arthur's Seat near Edinburgh; and those which Captain CALDERWOOD has since favoured me with on the Cairn-hills, being a part of the Pentland range to the South-west of that city.

By comparing these sets of observations together, it appeared from all of them, that when the air was at or near the freezing temperature, the logarithmic differences gave the real height, in English fathoms and thousandth parts, without any equation; and when considerably below that point, the equation was to be subtracted, or applied with the sign  $-$  instead of  $+$ . It was farther perceived, that the same general conclusion might be drawn from the coldest, not only of the Sun-rising, but even of the ordinary observations on Saleve, some reduction of the temperature being in certain cases made, on account of the exposure of the thermometer to the Sun's rays: hence I was led to suppose, that the morning observations, instead of being made exceptions from the rule, were those, which, it might be presumed, would form the best basis for deducing the equation depending on the heat of the air; because the mean temperature of the column was then found to differ least from that of its

extremities; whereas in the hottest time of the day, that difference was generally the greatest.

Having been enabled, by means of the cold observations, to form some judgement whereabout the zero of the scale would fall, below which the equation was negative, and above it affirmative; it followed of course, that the next principal thing to be sought for, was the maximum of equation, or that corresponding to the highest temperatures the climate of our island would afford. It was partly with the view of obtaining these that I went, in July 1775, to Snowdon in North Wales. On this expedition Captain CALDERWOOD was so obliging as to accompany me, and lend me his assistance in the operations for determining the geometrical height of that remarkable mountain. At that particular period, the weather proved unfavourable for obtaining hot barometrical observations; but, in other respects, they were very satisfactory, as being in general consistent among themselves, and agreeing sufficiently near with those of the preceding year in Scotland; at the same time that they were made on a height, as formerly mentioned, greater than any other hitherto measured, with equal care, in Britain. During the summer of 1776, Dr. LIND obtained some more hot observations on Arthur's Seat; and in the beginning of the following winter, Captain CALDERWOOD

5 made

made others of the cold kind, on the Cairn-hills in his neighbourhood. From the combination of the whole of these observations taken together, and a comparison of them with Mr. DE LUC's, as far as they are similar, I mean to shew the agreement or otherwise, between the equation for the heat of the air, as deduced from the barometer and manometer; but since the British observations, in certain cases, differ considerably in their circumstances from those on Saleve, it is necessary, in the first place, to point out wherein this difference chiefly consists.

In the observations in Britain, the barometers and detached thermometers have been, almost constantly, placed in the open air in the shade, and suffered to remain there generally half an hour, and sometimes a great deal longer, before the corresponding observations were begun, that the quicksilver might have time to take the temperatures of the situations respectively. They were then observed four times, usually at intervals of ten minutes, the mean of the four being that which is calculated, and called a single observation. If the time did not admit of so long an interval, the same number of observations were taken at distances of five minutes from each other. In either case, the extremes never differed above a few thousandth parts of an inch from the mean, so as to

render the computations of them separately wholly unnecessary.

Except in very small heights, and chiefly in London, where it was impossible to screen the upper barometer so effectually from the Sun during the time of observation as that below, which generally stood in the shade of some building, the temperature of the quicksilver in the superior <sup>(k)</sup> hath been colder than that in the inferior barometer. The difference was commonly found to be two or three degrees; sometimes it would amount to six or seven; rarely, in heights that were considerable, to nine or ten; and in one instance only to thirteen, where the vertical distance of the instruments was great.

Whether in the plain or on the tops of the highest mountains, the detached thermometers, indicating the temperature of the air, have generally stood something

(k) I have sometimes found, particularly in frosty weather, that a thermometer placed on the pavement of the North-side of St. Paul's Church-yard, close to the wall of the building, would stand two degrees lower than that which was exposed on the North-side of the iron gallery over the dome. The first, no doubt, felt the cold produced by the evaporation from the stones, while that above might be affected by the ascending smoke. But the most remarkable instance of this kind occurs in one of Dr. LIND's observations, on the breaking up of the hard frost January 31, 1776: at Hawk-hill, at 10<sup>h</sup> 45' A.M. the temperature of the open air was 14°, while that at the summit of Arthur's Seat was 20°. The frost that remained in the ground kept the air extremely cold below, though it had already felt the effects of the thaw at the top of the mountain.

lower

lower than those attached to their respective barometers, until they had remained a considerable time in the same situation, equally shaded from the Sun, when they always agreed: whence it followed, that in these observations, the mean temperature of the air, and equation depending upon it, might always have been determined very near the truth, from the temperature of the quicksilver in the tubes, as shewn by the attached thermometers, without ever consulting the detached ones. Let us now see what were the circumstances attending the observations on Saleve.

Mr. DE LUC's lowermost barometer stood in the ground-story of a house near Geneva, where it remained unaltered during the whole of his experiments; while the detached thermometer, indicating the temperature of the air, was exposed on a small eminence, at a little distance, directly to the Sun's rays: hence we find that, in the observations of high temperatures, the bottom of the column of air is often  $12^{\circ}$  or  $15^{\circ}$ , and in one case  $18^{\circ}$ , hotter than the quicksilver in the tube. And even in the lowest temperatures, the bottom of the column of air is generally hotter than the quicksilver within doors, contrary to common experience in this country: for in England, in winter, the exterior air in the shade is always colder than the interior air. This circumstance gives

reason to apprehend, that the thermometer suffered not only direct but reflected heat.

The superior barometer was shaded with a parasol from the Sun, while its corresponding detached thermometer was exposed to his rays: wherefore, in the observations of high temperatures, the top of the column of air is usually four or five degrees hotter than the quicksilver in the barometer standing in the same air; and the mean heat of the column often exceeds very considerably the mean heat of the quicksilver in the tubes.

In many of the coldest of Mr. DE LUC's observations, as well as in those of mean temperatures of about  $50^{\circ}$  or  $55^{\circ}$ , the superior barometer is often the hottest of the two, even when the surrounding atmosphere at the top is colder than at the bottom. This circumstance is easily accounted for: wood is known to be a bad conductor of heat, to receive it slowly, and retain it long: that barometer, which was moved about from place to place upon the mountain, with a very short interval between the observations (as is sufficiently evident from the great number of stations it passed through in a limited time) must have acquired and retained heat superior to that of the atmosphere, and communicated it to the tube with which it was in contact. Some difference would no doubt arise from this cause, if the temperatures of the  
quicksilver

quickfilver in the tube and attached thermometer did not keep exactly pace with each other.

The last point to be mentioned is still more remarkable than the rest; it is briefly this: in the observations at Sun-rising on Saleve, though the superior quickfilver is the coldest; yet the top of the column of air is commonly five or six, and sometimes eight or nine degrees, warmer than the bottom.

Having thus shewn the steps that were taken, for obtaining the coldest and hottest barometrical observations that the climate of this island would afford, the mode of observing, and wherein the circumstances attending them differed from those on Saleve, I shall now point out the general result. In order to avoid repetitions as much as possible, it is necessary, once for all, to remark, that the computations of the British observations, by the rule hereafter to be given, are subdivided into their respective classes. Each table contains 15 columns, which their titles sufficiently explain, that the principles from which the rule was deduced, the result and error, might all appear in one view. The last column towards the right-hand shews the ratio of the weight of quickfilver to air, the columns of the first in the barometers being severally reduced to the mean temperature of the last.

By



By comparing the tables it will be found, that the observations for extreme temperatures belong to the Edinburgh class of observations (N<sup>o</sup> 4.) it being thought best, in this case, to omit the few hot ones obtained on the inconsiderable heights near London: the mean of the coldest, answering to the temperature of  $21^{\circ}.75$ , make the logarithmic excess  $\frac{29}{1000}$ ; and the mean of the hottest, corresponding to the temperature of  $69^{\circ}.6$ , give a defect of  $\frac{81}{1000}$ . Now the sum of the two equations  $\frac{110}{1000}$ , being divided by the difference of temperature  $47^{\circ}.85$ , we have nearly 2.3 for the mean rate of the equation on each degree, which is less than that resulting from the operations of the manometer. Again, from the mean of the very best observations, as being made on the greatest heights, when the temperature of the air is  $52^{\circ}$ , it appears, that the defect is from  $\frac{49 \text{ to } 50}{1000}$ , or 2.5 for each degree nearly, which agrees perfectly well with the manometrical expansion. In this case, the ratio of the weight of quicksilver to air is as 11377 to 1; greater very considerably than 11232 to 1, assigned to them by Mr. DE LUC, when the temperature is  $69^{\circ}.32$ , answering to the zero of his scale, without any allowance for the diminution of pressure on his columns, which should have rendered air still comparatively lighter. From the British observations, made on the most considerable heights,

it appears, that when the temperature of the air is  $28^{\circ}.2$ , the ratio of its weight, with respect to that of quicksilver, is as 1 to 1.0552: hence the increase of the weight of air, on every degree of difference of temperature between  $28^{\circ}.2$  and  $52^{\circ}.5$ , amounts to 34.4; and hence we have  $52^{\circ}.5 - 28^{\circ}.2 = 24^{\circ}.3$  for the temperature of the air in Britain, when its weight would be  $\frac{1}{1.1232}$  of that of quicksilver; and consequently agree with Mr. DE LUC's, though the heat would differ from his  $21^{\circ}$ . It will no doubt be remarked, that the equation for the air, resulting from the operations of the barometer, falls short of that given by the manometer. Part of the difference, I apprehend, may arise from the small number of barometrical observations obtained in extreme temperatures. I shall, nevertheless, adduce reasons hereafter for supposing, that it really should diminish, because of the drier and less elastic state of the superior air, compared with that taken into the manometer at the earth's surface. In the mean time, since both instruments agree in the equation for  $52^{\circ}$ , which is a heat that the barometer will very frequently be used in, it seems best to adhere to the mean manometrical result 2.45, in fixing the zero of the scale, which is obtained in the following manner.

Divide the excess or defect, expressed in 1000th parts of the logarithmic result, by 2.45, the mean expansion of air:

air for each degree of the thermometer; the quotient will give the number of degrees, in the first case, to be added to, and in the last subtracted from, the temperature of the air in the observation; the sum or difference answers to the zero of the scale, or that temperature when the logarithmic result gives the real height in English fathoms and 1000th parts.

According to this mode of computation, we have, from the aggregate of the several classes of British observations, the place of the zero as follows:

			Zero.		
By the 1st class of observations in and near London, } between the temperatures of — —			25.5	and 71.2	at 32.2
2d, near Taybridge,	—	—	46.1	— 62.9	— 31.1
3d, near Lanark,	—	—	44.	— 62.	— 32.8
4th, near Edinburgh,	—	—	17.	— 70.7	— 31.3
5th, near Linhouse,	—	—	26.1	— 46.5	— 29.0
6th, near Carnarvon,	—	—	49.1	— 62.3	— 32.9
Mean place of the zero at			—	—	<u>31.7</u>

The number  $31^{\circ}.7$  differing so very little from  $32^{\circ}$ , we may hereafter consider that remarkable point of FAHRENHEIT'S thermometer, as the zero of the scale depending on the temperature of the air; and hence is deduced the second part, of the rule for measuring heights with the barometer. When the mean temperature of the column of air to be measured is at  $32^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, the difference

difference of the common logarithms of the equated heights of quicksilver in the inferior and superior barometers, expressed in 1000th parts of an inch, gives the real height in fathoms and 1000th parts, the three figures towards the right-hand being decimals, and the rest integers; which, being multiplied by six, gives the result in feet.

Let us next consider, in a general way, how far this will correspond, or otherwise, with Mr. DE LUC's observations in extreme temperatures.

I have already had occasion to remark, that when the temperature of the air was at  $69^{\circ}.32$ , as indicated by thermometers exposed to the Sun's rays, Mr. DE LUC found that the differences of the common logarithms of the heights of the barometers at the two stations, gave the altitude between them, in French toises and 1000th parts: in which case the specific gravity of quicksilver to air was as 11232 to 1. When his formula is adapted to English measures, the zero of the scale necessarily descends to 39.74, where the English fathom bears the same proportion to the modulus of the common logarithms, as, in the former case, the French toise did to that modulus, the equation for the intermediate temperature being now applied with the contrary sign. As it hath been shewn, that the British observations differ in their

circumstances from those on Saleve, and require a greater equation, it is unnecessary to enter into any minute comparison of the two sets: nevertheless, that some idea may be formed of the cause, of part at least, of the difference that takes place between them, I have collected into one view, the computations of such as were made in extreme temperatures; namely, the coldest of those at Sun-rising (though the whole of that class were considered as exceptions from the rule); the coldest and hottest of the ordinary observations; also those on the Dole<sup>(1)</sup>, at Genoa, and at Turin, whereby the heights of the lake of Geneva and of Turin, above the sea at Genoa, were obtained. In the table it will be observed, that there is a column for the reduced temperature of the air, on account of the exposition of the thermometer to the Sun's

(1) Having recomputed the whole of Mr. DE LUC's observations on Saleve, and classed them according to the months in which they were made, I intended, at one time, to have given a general table, comprehending the mean results of all of them: however, this is now become unnecessary, since a very respectable and ingenious member of this Society hath had opportunities of making many curious and interesting observations on those very heights, which cannot fail of being perfectly satisfactory; and who, at my request, was so obliging as to determine the height of the Dole geometrically. On this mountain Mr. DE LUC had made barometrical observations, whose results differing considerably from the altitude, 4182 feet above the lake of Geneva, as taken by Mr. FATIO DE DUILLIER, made me suspect there was an error. In fact it appears, from the last measurement, that the summit of the Dole is 4293 feet above the surface of the lake, which gives for the vertical distance of Mr. DE LUC's barometer 4210 feet.

rays: I apprehend that I have not exceeded, but rather fallen short, in the reduction, to what would have been indicated by thermometers in the shade, perfectly free from direct and reflected heat, and with sufficient time allowed between the observations. Be this as it may, it is of no importance, as no other conclusion is drawn from these observations, than that of shewing what, in my apprehension, might probably have been the case, if another mode had been adopted.

From the table it appears, that when the temperature of the air is at  $29^{\circ}.5$ , the logarithmic excess is  $\frac{9}{1000}$ ; and at  $75^{\circ}.5$  reduced temperature, the defect is  $\frac{96}{1000}$ . The sum of the two equations  $\frac{105}{1000}$  being divided by the difference of temperature  $46^{\circ}$ , we have, as in the British observations, nearly 2.3 for each degree, which is greater than that applied by Mr. DE LUC's rule, in the proportion of 23 to 21. That too small an equation hath been made use of in these hottest observations, supposing the original zero and temperature to remain, is sufficiently evident: for  $\frac{96}{1000}$  being divided by  $42^{\circ}$  the difference of temperature, we have, as before, 2.3 very nearly for the equation answering to each degree.

Farther, if we consider the ratio of the weight of quicksilver to air, actually resulting from the observations themselves, the same kind of error (for I cannot see

it in any other light) still exists. Thus, in the coldest of the morning, as well as in the ordinary observations, when the temperature is at or near freezing, the mean ratio of the weight of quicksilver to air, is about 10850 to 1. When the observed and reduced temperatures are respectively  $41^{\circ}$  and  $35^{\circ}$ , the ratio between them is that of 11295 to 1, answering nearly to what hath been assigned to them when the heat is  $69^{\circ}.32$ . Again, in the hottest observations of the 14th and 15th of July 1759, and 20th of July 1760, on the highest, and consequently the best stations, when the observed and reduced temperatures are respectively  $81^{\circ}.7$  and  $75^{\circ}.6$ , quicksilver is to air as 12650 to 1. Now if we reduce this number 12650 by a proportionable part, for the degrees of difference between Mr. DE LUC's zero  $69^{\circ}.32$ , and the observed and reduced temperatures respectively, we shall have, in the first case, 12200; and in the last, 12390 to 1, for the ratio of the weight of quicksilver to air; either of which exceeds very considerably 11232, which hath been assigned to them.

With regard to the observations on the Dole, the defect is  $\frac{81.4}{1000}$ , answering to the observed temperature of  $66^{\circ}.6$ , and which is only reduced to  $65^{\circ}.2$ . On this great height, the ratio of the weight of quicksilver to

air<sup>(m)</sup> is that of 12595 to 1. Mr. DE LA CAILLE's observations at the Cape of Good Hope, annexed to the table containing Mr. DE LUC's, give a defect of  $\frac{58.7}{1000}$ , when the temperature seems to have been about 58°, in which case quicksilver was 11687 times heavier than air.

Now if, from the aggregate of these observations, the same method be adopted, as was made use of in the British, for finding the zero of the scale, we shall have it as follows:

By Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air and observed temperature.				By the manometrical equation and reduced temperature.			
Coldest of the morn- ing observations, } from —	°	°	°	°	°	°	
	25.2	to 30.5	at 33.7	from 25.2	to 30.5	at 33.12	
Coldest of the ordi- nary observations, }	27.1	— 41.9	— 38.7	— 26.	— 35.	— 32.97	
Hottest of the ordi- nary observations, }	76.	— 84.5	— 36.2	— 73.5	— 77.	— 36.32	
On the Dole, —	59.2	— 71.5	— 27.6	— 58.	— 70.	— 32.	
Light house of Genoa,	75.	— 79.	— 26.	— 75.	— 79.	— 33.40	
DE LA CAILLE's,	—	58.	— 30.	—	— 58.	— 33.35	
			<u>32.03</u>			<u>33.52</u>	
Zero at	—	—		Zero at			

(m) It will even be found, though the calculations are not inserted in the table, that the hottest of Mr. DE LUC's morning observations, June 8th, 1758, at the 15th station, answering to the mean temperature of 57°.5, and which I consider as the best, because no reduction is necessary for the exposition of the thermometer, agree with the manometrical experiments, in requiring a greater equation than is wanted in extreme temperatures: for in this case, the mean of two observations gives a defect of  $\frac{65.5}{1000}$  for 25°.5 above freezing, which is 2.57 for each degree; the ratio of the weight of quicksilver to air being that of 12196 to 1.

From



From the mean of these observations, though the results are irregular among themselves, it appears sufficiently evident, that if the morning observations on Saleve had been retained, instead of being made exceptions from the rule, the zero of the scale would have descended about  $8^{\circ}$ ; *viz.* from  $69^{\circ}.3$  to  $61^{\circ}.4$  of FAHRENHEIT, supposing always the equation 2.1 for each degree of temperature, and the French toise, as the standard measure, to have been adhered to: for the French toise bears to the English fathom, the proportion of 106575 to 100000; wherefore  $\frac{6575}{106575} = \frac{61.69}{2.1} = 29^{\circ}.4 + 32^{\circ} = 69^{\circ}.4$ , denotes the relative positions of the two zeros, the intermediate equation  $\frac{61.69}{1000}$  being to be subtracted, when the toise is made use of. But it hath been shewn, that the mean expansion of air is really greater, for such temperatures at least as the barometer can be applied in, than what Mr. DE LUC supposed it, in the proportion of 245 to 210; whence it follows, that  $\frac{61.69}{2.45} = 25^{\circ}.18 + 32^{\circ} = 57^{\circ}.18$ , will denote the relative positions of the two zeros; which, instead of almost  $30^{\circ}$ , are only distant from each other a little more than  $25^{\circ}$ .

From what hath been said it is easy to see, that in calculating heights according to Mr. DE LUC's rule, when the temperature of the air is below his zero, which we  
 may

may take at  $40^{\circ}$ , the English measure being used, the common error in the result will be equal to the sum of the two equations,  $2.1 + 2.45 = 4.55$  for each degree; which amounts to  $\frac{36.4}{1000}$  parts for the  $8^{\circ}$  that the zero is too high. Above  $40^{\circ}$ , the former error  $\frac{36.4}{1000}$  will be augmented by the difference of the equations for each degree that the temperature is above his zero, *viz.*  $2.45 - 2.1 = \frac{0.35}{1000}$ . In either case it is to be observed, that the progressive rate of equation for the heat of the quicksilver is not here taken into the account; because it will not produce any material difference, unless one barometer is much hotter than the other, at the same time that their vertical distance is very great. Thus the 3<sup>d</sup> degree of FAHRENHEIT, or freezing temperature, which is fundamental in all thermometers, happens, somewhat remarkably, to be the zero of the scale, when the English fathom bears such proportion to the modulus of the common logarithms, as that their difference, in computing heights by the barometer, brings out the result in fathoms. No other proportion of a measure will do it: for if we suppose twenty-four of different lengths, between ours and the French toise, each surpassing the other by  $\frac{263}{100000}$  of that toise, the zero of the scale, in computing heights by these measures respectively, will ascend a single de-

gree on each; and the French toise being the 25th, will have its zero nearly at the 57th degree: about which temperature the expansion of air appears, from the experiments, to be at its maximum. From that point, therefore, the equation will diminish both ways, though by a quicker progression for condensation, than it doth for dilatation.

Having thus compared, in a general way, the results of the British observations with those of Mr. DE LUC, pointed out what seem to be the chief causes of the constant defect found in his rule, and thereby obtained, it is hoped, some corrections tending to improve the theory of the barometer, when applied to the measurement of heights in middle latitudes; it remains to shew the principles, whereon the table for the equation of the air hath been constructed. Previously however to this, it may be proper to compare, with as much brevity as possible, these observations, with others that have been made towards the Pole and at the Equator: from which it will appear probable, that the rule which answers in middle latitudes, will not in the frigid and torrid zones.

In 1773, Captain PHIPPS, now Lord MULGRAVE, commanding two of his Majesty's ships then sent on discoveries towards the North Pole, measured geometrically, with great care, the height of a mountain in Hakluyt's Island

near

near Spitzbergen, and found it to be 1503 feet above the level of the sea. On the morning of the 18th of August, the following observations, at the sea-shore and top of the mountain, were made with a single barometer, wherein the quicksilver had not been boiled.

At 6 h. A.M. Barometer at the shore,	—	—	30.040	therm. 50°
7 h. 45' A.M. Ditto at the top of the mountain,			28.266	— 42
8 h. 45' A.M. Ditto at the top of ditto,	—		28.258	— 42
11 h. 45' A.M. Ditto at the sea-shore,	—		30.032	— 44

Whence we have the following computations, equated for the times corresponding to the two observations at the top.

$$\begin{array}{l}
 7 \text{ h. } 45' \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 30.038 \\ 28.266 \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 46^\circ - 0.46 = 29.992 \\ 42 - 0.31 = 28.235 \end{array} \right\} = 1573 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} +70. \\ =44.5 \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 43^\circ \\ 41 \end{array} \right\} 42^\circ \\
 8 \text{ h. } 45' \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 30.036 \\ 28.258 \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 45^\circ - 0.43 = 29.993 \\ 42 - 0.31 = 28.227 \end{array} \right\} = 1581.3 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} +78.3 \\ =49.5 \end{array} \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 43 \\ 41 \end{array} \right\} 42 \\
 \text{Mean} \quad \quad \quad \frac{1577.1}{1000} = \frac{+47}{1000}
 \end{array}
 \left. \vphantom{\begin{array}{l} 7 \text{ h. } 45' \\ 8 \text{ h. } 45' \end{array}} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{Quicksilver to air as} \\ 10224 \text{ to } 1. \end{array}$$

From these observations it appears that, instead of the usual equation  $\frac{24.5}{1000}$ , to be added to the logarithmic result, in order to obtain the true height in Britain, when the temperature is 42°, there is an excess of  $\frac{47}{1000}$ : and, instead of the usual ratio of the weight of quicksilver to columns of air, of equal altitude and temperature in Britain, namely about 11200, we have that of 10224 to 1.

Thus air at Spitzbergen seems to be specifically heavier, than that affected with the same heat and pressure in the middle latitudes: whence it follows that, instead of  $32^{\circ}$  which is found to be the zero of the scale about the middle of the temperate zone, we shall have  $\frac{47}{245} = 19^{\circ}.2 + 42^{\circ} = 61^{\circ}.2$  for the zero at Spitzbergen, within  $10^{\circ}$  of the North Pole.

It is much to be regretted, that the French academicians, when employed in measuring the degrees of the meridian in Peru, were not supplied with better barometers, and that they made not observations at corresponding times; since the scene of their operations was undoubtedly preferable to any other on the surface of the globe, for determining many curious points with respect to the modifications of the atmosphere in the torrid zone: nevertheless, by attending diligently to what Mr. BOUGUER <sup>(n)</sup> hath told us, of the steadiness of the barometer.

(n) He says, that at the South Sea, REAUMUR's thermometer, in the morning before Sun-rising, stood at  $19^{\circ}$ ,  $20^{\circ}$ , or  $21^{\circ}$ ; and in the afternoon at  $26^{\circ}$ ,  $27^{\circ}$ , or  $28^{\circ}$ . The respective means correspond to  $76^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  and  $92^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  of FAHRENHEIT, and make the mean heat of the day  $84^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ . At Quito the temperature continued at  $14^{\circ}$  or  $15^{\circ}$ , answering to  $65^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  of FAHRENHEIT. At the summits of Coraçon and Pichincha, the thermometer stood in the morning several degrees below freezing, and varied  $17^{\circ}$  in the heat of the afternoon; whence the mean temperature at these highest stations, would probably be about  $43^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  of FAHRENHEIT. He farther says, that in the torrid zone, whatever may be the  
mean

meter throughout the year; the uniformity of the mean temperature in every assigned station; and his mode of computing, by means of the tables of common logarithms, the altitudes of the Cordillero mountains above the valley that extends itself between them; it will be no difficult matter to discover, nearly at least, what sort of equation became necessary; and what were the relative weights of quicksilver and air of the mean temperature, not only in that high region of the atmosphere, but also at the level of the sea.

Thus, by inspecting the table of computations, it will appear, that columns of air, whose bases were removed six or eight thousand feet from the level of the sea, and whose heights equalled that distance, when the temperature was  $55^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT, as determined from the mean between the coldest of the morning and hottest of the afternoon, the mean logarithmic defect was only  $\frac{36.3}{1000}$ : whereas, in measuring heights near the level of the sea, in middle latitudes, the common equation for that temperature is about  $\frac{5.7}{1000}$ . The mean ratio of the weight of quicksilver to air, on these long columns comprehended respectively between Carabourou and Quito, and the

mean heat in any assigned station, it continues uniformly the same throughout the year. In this rough estimation of the temperature in Peru, it seemed unnecessary to examine, whether the true thermometer of REAUMUR was used or not; as it could produce no material difference, except at the very hottest stations.

summits of Pichincha and Coraçon, is that of 16793 to 1. On the altitude of 1534 feet, intercepted between Carabourou and Quito, which short section of the column is about half-way between the level of the sea, and the summits of the Cordilleros, the mean temperature being  $66^{\circ}$ , the ratio is that of 15089 to 1: hence it seems probable, that quicksilver would have to the different sections of the general column of air, comprehended between the sea and the top of Coraçon, nearly the following ratios:

	Temp.	
At the level of the South Sea,	$84\frac{1}{2}$	13100 to 1
Half-way from thence to Carabourou,	$75\frac{1}{2}$	14100
At Carabourou, — —	$66\frac{1}{2}$	15100
Half-way from thence to Coraçon,	55	16100
At the summit of Coraçon, —	$43\frac{1}{2}$	17100
Whereof the mean is, —	<u>65</u>	<u>15100</u>

Mr. BOUGUER tells us, that the barometer in the torrid zone varies not at the sea-shore above two and a half, or at most three lines throughout the whole year. At Popayan, its variation is only a line and a half; and at Quito a single line. Now let us suppose, that an altitude had been measured with the barometer at the level of  
the

the South-sea, where the descent of quicksilver at the upper station was exactly an inch in the mean heat of the day, answering to  $84^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ . On the former supposition of the weight of quicksilver to air, the height would be 13100 inches or 1091.7 feet.

$$\text{Hence } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 29.930 \quad 84^{\circ}\frac{1}{2} - 169 = 29.761 \\ 28.930 \quad 84^{\circ}\frac{1}{2} - 169 = 28.761 \end{array} \right\} = 890.6 \text{ feet;}$$

the logarithmic result, which is defective 201.1, or nearly  $\frac{226}{1000}$  parts. Now this equation being divided by 2.45 the mean expansion of air, we have nearly  $92^{\circ}$  for the difference between  $84^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ , the temperature of the observation, and the zero of the scale, which reduces it to  $-7^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  of FAHRENHEIT. If it should be thought that I have supposed the air to be too light at the level of the sea under the equator, let it be taken to quicksilver only, at a mean between 13100 and 12672, which seems to have been the ratio of their weights at Genoa, when Mr. DE LUC's temperature was  $79^{\circ}$ , and we shall have 12881 inches, or 1073.4 feet of air, for the counterpoise to the inch of quicksilver in the barometer: hence  $1073.4 - 890.6 = \frac{182.8}{890.6} = \frac{205}{2.45} = 83^{\circ}.7$ , will denote the number of degrees that the zero of the scale would, in that case, be below the temperature of the air, and brings it to within less than a degree of the cylinder of FAHRENHEIT. But in middle latitudes the zero of the scale is not  $83^{\circ}.7$ , and the



equation, applicable at the level of the sea for the heat of  $84^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ , is at most only  $\frac{13.2}{1000}$  instead of  $\frac{20.5}{1000}$ .

Mr. BOUGUER found, that the rule which his experience had furnished him with, for computing heights with the barometer between the ranges of the Cordilleros, namely, that of deducting  $\frac{1}{30}$ th part from the number of toises expressed by the logarithmic differences, which agrees nearly with the equation  $\frac{36.3}{1000}$  which I have made use of in the table of computations, would not answer when he came to apply it at the level of the sea. He tells us, indeed, that the elasticities of the air, above and below, are there, as well as in Europe, exactly proportionable to its condensations; and even, that the intensity of the elastic force, or spring of the air, is every where equal in all places of the torrid zone that are considerably elevated. The real condensations in each place are proportionable to the weights of the superior columns causing the compression; these condensations being in geometrical, the heights are in arithmetical progression. But below the same law doth not take place; because the intensity of the elastic force is really considerably less at the level of the sea, than it is at one or two hundred toises above it, notwithstanding the effect of the heat, which should render it greater. It is to be observed, that Mr. BOUGUER hath not given us the observations whereon

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he founded this last deduction; and his note on the text, which I apprehend, nevertheless, conveys his true meaning, is contradictory to it: for there he says, that the dilatation occasioned by the heat throughout the day, changed the distribution of the weight with regard to all the places situated within the Cordilleros, as well as on other mountains, and made the lower sections of the columns contain less and the upper sections more air, than they should have done, had it been a perfectly elastic fluid..

Having now mentioned all the barometrical observations that have come to my knowledge, tending any way to throw light on this very intricate subject, it remains to sum up, from the whole, the general principles whereon I have proceeded in constructing the table of equation for the heat of the air.

It will be remembered, that I have more than once remarked, that in the British observations, when the temperature was  $52^{\circ}$ , the defect was  $\frac{49 \text{ or } 50}{1000}$ , the lowermost barometer standing at or near the level of the sea; but in the observations on Tinto, a considerable hill appertaining to the third class, whose base is elevated 700 feet above the level of the Clyde at Glasgow, when the temperature was  $52^{\circ}$ , I found the equation to be little more than  $\frac{45}{1000}$ . Again, these two facts being compared with

the aggregate result of Mr. DE LUC's observations, where the lowermost barometer stood about 1300 feet above the sea, the equation for the same temperature seemed not to exceed  $\frac{4.2}{1000}$ . Lastly, these circumstances being confronted with the results of Mr. BOUGUER's observations, where the lowermost barometer stood from 6000 to 8000 feet above the sea, the mean equation for  $55^{\circ}$  was only  $\frac{36.3}{1000}$ , which gives  $\frac{34}{1000}$  for the heat of  $52^{\circ}$ . Now these Peruvian observations, which I believe to be exceedingly good from the steadiness of the barometer in that part of the world, being substituted in lieu of those not yet obtained in our own quarter of the globe, there seemed to me to be a necessity for concluding, that the equation for middle latitudes, with any assigned temperature above or below the zero of the scale, diminished as the height of the place above the sea increased; which consequently implied, that the magnitude of the logarithmic terms increased faster than the dilatations of the air. But when the comparison was carried yet farther, and the observations in Peru and at Spitzbergen were fairly brought into one view, there appeared to be sufficient grounds for suspecting, if not absolutely for concluding, that there could be no fixed zero for the scale depending on the temperature of the air; but that it would change with the density of the atmosphere appertaining to the

latitudes,

latitudes, climates, or zones of the earth, where the observations were made. On this supposition it was natural for the mind to form to itself some general hypothesis, which might serve to account for the appearances; and the first that presented itself was the following: that the atmosphere surrounding our globe might possibly be composed of particles, whose specific gravities were really different; that the lightest were placed at the equator; and that the density of the others gradually increased from thence towards the poles, where the heaviest of all had their position <sup>(c)</sup>.

It is a well known and established fact, that in the middle latitudes, a North or North-east wind constantly raises the barometer, and generally higher as its continuance is longer. The contrary happens when a South or South-west wind blows; for I believe it is commonly lowest when the duration and strength of the wind from

(c) It was suggested by Dr. GEORGE FORDYCE, that equatorial and Greenland air might be brought bottled up, and weighed in this country in air of the respective temperatures, by means of a curious balance whereof he is possessed, in order to see whether any difference could be discovered in their specific gravities. A thought of the same kind, but more easily put to experiment, occurred to Lieutenant GLENIE, of the Royal Artillery, namely, that of weighing equatorial and polar sea-water. To this gentleman I am obliged for his assistance in part of the manometrical experiments, as well as in several of the computations.

that quarter have been the greatest. Thus the North-east wind, by blowing for any length of time, brings into the middle latitudes a mass of air heavier than that which naturally appertains to the region, and raises the barometer above its mean height. The continuance of a South-wester carries off the heavy air, deposits a much lighter body in its stead, and never fails to sink the barometer below its mean height: hence, in the middle parts of Europe, there is a difference of about two inches and a quarter between the highest and lowest states of the barometer. But supposing it to be only two inches, the difference of pressure still amounts to  $\frac{1}{15}$ th part of the whole weight of the atmosphere. Now it is evident from the Peruvian observations, that the greatest fluctuation of the barometer, which is at the level of the sea, doth not exceed 0.226 of an inch, or  $\frac{1}{33}$ d part of the whole pressure; and if the change should be no greater at the poles, which I think not improbable, it follows, that the measurement of heights by means of the barometer, in middle latitudes, will be more precarious and uncertain than in the torrid and frigid zones.

Such in general were the first ideas which the comparison of the operations of the barometer with the effects  
of

of the North-east and South-west wind <sup>(p)</sup> on that instrument, suggested with regard to the different densities of the atmosphere in the different zones of the earth.

But since the experiments on the expansion of moist air have shewn its elasticity to be so much greater than that which is dry, I apprehend, that the simple principle of heat and moisture may suffice to account for all the phenomena. Thus it is universally admitted, that there is a greater degree of humidity and heat in the air, near the earth's surface, than there is in the higher regions of the atmosphere. The elasticity or expansion of the lowermost section <sup>(q)</sup> of every column of air, whether  
long

(p) I have been well informed, that in China the North-west wind raises the barometer most, and is highly electrical; it is at the same time the driest and the coldest; and at Canton, under the Northern tropic, there is frequently ice. On the East-coasts of North America the severity of the North-west wind is universally remarked; and there can scarcely be a doubt, that the inhabitants of California, and other parts on the West-side of that great Continent, will, like those on the West of Europe, feel the strong effects of a North-east wind. The extraordinary dryness and density of the wind from the North pole, seems therefore to be occasioned by its passing over the Continent of Europe and Asia on one side, and that of North America on the other. Those who live on the East and West-coasts of South America, will find the driest and coldest winds come to them respectively from the South-west and South-east. As the winds seem to be colder, drier, and denser, in proportion to the extent of land they pass over from the poles towards the equator, so they appear to be more moist, warm, and light, in proportion to the extent of Ocean they pass over from the equator towards the poles. Hence the humidity, warmth, and lightness, of the Atlantic wind to the inhabitants of Europe.

(q) Mr. DE LUC seems to have suspected something of this kind towards the

long or short, will consequently be greater than the uppermost section of it; for the heat, by dissolving the moisture, produces a vapour lighter than air, which mixing with its particles, removes them farther from each other, increases the elasticity of the general mass, and diminishes its specific gravity comparatively more than it doth that of the section immediately above it, where there is less heat and less moisture. Hence I infer, that the equation for the air, in any assigned vertical, will gradually diminish as the elevation of the place above the sea increases, and that it will vanish at the top of the atmosphere. This is in some respect confirmed by the experiments on the expansion of rare air; for from them it appears, when the particles are very far removed from each other, by a great diminution of pressure, as is undoubtedly the case in the higher regions of the atmosphere, they lose a great part of their elastic force. Thus the equation, answering to any particular temperature, above or below the zero of the scale, at different heights above the surface, will, I apprehend, be expressed by the ordinates to a curve of the hyperbolic order, whose cur-

end of his 8th chap. *sur les difficultés à vaincre*: and in that which follows, he gives proofs of the lightness of vapours with regard to air, saying, that they point out fire to be their vehicle. He afterwards quotes NEWTON with respect to the lightness of a humid atmosphere compared with one that is dry.

vature may be supposed to change fast near the surface of the earth, and differ insensibly from a straight line at great heights above it.

With regard to the latitudinal equation, the same principle of heat and moisture seems to make it probable, that such will become necessary in operating with the barometer; for it is well known, that there is a great degree of humidity in the air between the tropics; and, on the contrary, that the polar atmospheres are very dry. The heat and moisture being greatest at the equator, there the elasticity or equation will likewise be the greatest at the level of the sea; and the zero of the scale will necessarily descend to a lower point of the thermometer, than that to which it corresponds in middle latitudes. As the elasticity of the air at the level of the sea, or equal heights above it, with the same degree of heat, will always be proportionable to the quantity of moisture dissolved in it, therefore it will gradually diminish from the equator towards the poles; that is to say, the zero of the scale will ascend in the thermometer, coincide with the 32d degree in the middle latitudes, and, in its motion upwards, will give the equation to be applied with the contrary sign in high latitudes. Hence I infer, that every latitude, climate, or zone, will not only have its particular zero, but also its particular curve, whose ordinates will



will always measure the equations applicable in the respective situations. The equatorial curve will probably change the fastest, and the others become gradually flatter, as they approach towards the poles, where the greater, but more uniform, density of the atmosphere may occasion it to differ little from a straight line. I apprehend, however, that even at the pole some small diminution might be found to take place in the equation, was it possible, in that region, to prove it by experiments at a sufficient height above the level of the sea.

The table of the equation, depending on the heat of the air, annexed to this paper, is constructed for middle latitudes. It extends to temperatures from  $12^{\circ}$  to  $92^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT; and for situations so greatly elevated above the sea, as to make the mean barometer between the two stations stand no higher than 19 inches. As the equation corresponding to the lower parts of the atmosphere, contained in the right-hand columns, will come more frequently into use than that appertaining to the higher regions, comprehended in those on the left; therefore, in the first, it is given for every half; and in the last only, for every whole inch of descent of quick-silver in the tube.

The equation found in the column of 29 inches, corresponds exactly with the expansion of air resulting from

the manometrical experiments; and the ratio of diminution, in the temperature of  $52^{\circ}$ , hath been taken from the Peruvian observations, supposing it to decrease uniformly  $\frac{2}{1000}$  on each inch, or  $\frac{16}{1000}$  on the eight inches between 29 and 21. For the sake of simplicity, as well as from the want of sufficient data for ascertaining the lengths of the ordinates of the curve, the arithmetical hath been preferred to any progressive diminution that might have been adopted, though by this mode the results would have agreed better with some of my own, as well as Mr. DE LUC's observations. In each of the columns the equations for particular temperatures, compared with that for  $12^{\circ}$  or  $92^{\circ}$ , are reciprocally proportionable, so that the maximum of the rate always corresponds to the space between  $52^{\circ}$  and  $72^{\circ}$ , as indicated by the manometer. It will be observed, that though the equation in the table is only given for every  $10^{\circ}$  of difference of temperature, yet, by the intermediate rates for single degrees in the columns respectively, and the ratio of diminution for the height of the mean barometer above the sea, expressed in that towards the right-hand, the equation for any particular temperature may be readily obtained. The application of this table makes the third part of the rule, for measuring heights with the barometer. When the mean temperature of the column

of air is above  $32^{\circ}$  of FAHRENHEIT's thermometer in the shade, add the equation corresponding to the temperature and height of quicksilver in the mean barometer to the logarithmic altitude; when below  $32^{\circ}$ , subtract the equation from the logarithmic altitude; the sum in the first case, and difference in the last, gives the real height.

Besides the table of equation for the air, adapted to the measurement of the greatest accessible heights the barometer can possibly be applied to in middle latitudes, I have annexed, for the use of those who may prefer simplicity, and still doubt of the vertical diminution, a thermometrical scale of the equation, suited to English and French measures, with their respective thermometers. It will readily be conceived, that the divisions, expressing the 1000th parts in this scale<sup>(r)</sup>, are unequal, since they follow the inverse ratio of the thermometrical compared with the manometrical degrees. Where these last are the greatest, as between  $52^{\circ}$  and  $72^{\circ}$ , the divisions expressing the equation are the smallest, because a greater

(r) Any scale of this kind, unless it had been mechanically divided by a mathematical instrument-maker, could not be rendered very exact; and it may be expected, that the imperfections in the original will be augmented in copying by the engraver, notwithstanding the utmost care on his part: wherefore, on the left-hand side of the plate, I have annexed the number of degrees and decimal parts of FAHRENHEIT, below the temperature of  $91^{\circ}.88$ , corresponding to every 1000th parts of the equation, by which means the unequal scale may, at any time, be divided with sufficient accuracy.

number of them correspond to the same thermometrical space. When the height is required in fathoms, the zero of FAHRENHEIT corresponds to  $-71.72$ , and the boiling point to  $+412.49$ : the sum of the two equations  $484.21$  is the actual expansion of common air from the heat of  $212^{\circ}$ . When the French toise is made use of as the measure, the zero of the scale hath been shewn to coincide with  $57^{\circ}.18$  of FAHRENHEIT, or  $+11^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$  of REAUMUR. The negative equation  $134^{\circ}.72$  answering to  $-14^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$  of REAUMUR, and the positive  $349^{\circ}.49$  corresponding to  $+80^{\circ}$ , or the boiling point, being added together, make again  $484.21$ .

In order to convey a more distinct idea of the effect which heat produces in the dilatation of different kinds of air, compared with quicksilver, along with the scale for the equation I have placed another, expressing the actual and relative expansions, resulting from the mean of the experiments, for every  $20^{\circ}$  of difference of temperature. This scale is intended to give a comparative view of the manometrical with the thermometrical spaces, mentioned in the second section.

I shall now close this paper, which hath already greatly exceeded the limits I wished to have been able to prescribe to it, with a few remarks on the error of the rule, perceivable in the tables of computation, and the mea-

fures that should, in my opinion, be taken to bring the theory of the barometer to a still greater degree of perfection, such as I believe it to be really capable of.

By inspection of the tables containing the computations of the British observations, it will be seen, that the error of the rule is in general very small. In the London class it is greatest on Shooter's-hill, making the height five feet too little. In those at Taybridge, one of the observations on Schihallien gives a defective result of  $29\frac{1}{2}$  feet; but this is easily accounted for, as it certainly arose from the short time given to the barometer to lose the heat it had acquired in carrying upwards, those destined to observe at the summit arriving there too late, that is to say, towards the expiration of the whole hour which the inferior barometer had been observed in. One of the observations on Carmichael-hill, though a small height, is defective eight feet, which I ascribe to the South-west wind and humidity of the air. From the same cause I would account for the uniform defect in the first part of the Edinburgh observations: in the last part of these, the circumstances having changed, the error hath the contrary sign. In the Linhouse class of observations, the same cause of defect appears on the 1st of December, 1775, and on the 20th of November, and 17th of December, 1776. The only result which I consider

consider as very irregular, and do not pretend to account for, is that for the height of Moel Eilio, a hill situated between Carnarvon and Snowdon: the real altitude 2371 feet, is exceeded by the barometrical result 21 feet, though the circumstances were such as, in other cases, generally make it fall short.

At the bottom of the tables of computations I have occasionally substituted Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air, in calculating one or more of the greatest heights, that the difference between the two methods might become more obvious. Thus the first observation on Schi-hallien is defective  $67\frac{1}{2}$  feet; the mean of those on Tinto 29 feet; Moel Eilio 41 feet; and Snowdon 81 feet.

With respect to the results that the rule produces on Mr. DE LUC's heights it will be observed, that it answers very well in the cold observations, which, with his rule, were often defective 60 or 70 feet; but gives too much in those that are hot. If, however, the whole of these hot observations had been included, the apparent error would have been less; for the mean defect was taken at  $\frac{96}{1000}$  for the hottest temperature, whereas it sometimes amounts to  $\frac{110}{1000}$ . On the height of the Dole the rule errs in defect; and on the mean of Mr. DE LA CAILLE's observations, at the Cape of Good Hope, it exceeds the truth. By substituting Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air,

in the computations of the Dole and Table-hill, the respective results are defective 96 and 62.6 feet.

To the British observations a table is annexed, containing the barometrical computations of altitudes not yet determined geometrically. In the chief part of these the inferior barometer stood at Belmont-castle, the seat of the lord privy-seal for Scotland, by whose directions the corresponding observations were made. This table likewise comprehends Mr. BANKS's observations in 1772, for the height of the South-pap of Jura, above Freeport in the island of Isla, and those he made the same year, to obtain the height of Mount Hecla, above Hafniford in Iceland.

Lastly, it is to be observed, that in the application of the table, the equation found in the columns  $29\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $30$ , and  $30\frac{1}{2}$ , will never come into use, except in the measurement of short columns of air, whose bases stand at, or not much above, the level of the sea<sup>(1)</sup>. In an island, whose

(1) Having been accustomed, from the beginning, to call the station of the inferior barometer the place of observation, and to suppose the mean height of its quicksilver to denote the elevation of the place above the sea, for the sake of simplicity I adapted the formula to the height of quicksilver in that barometer, and made all the computations in the tables accordingly. But it having been suggested to me, first by Sir GEORGE SHUCKBURGH, and afterwards by Mr. DE LUC, that this mode, though the easiest, was not strictly accurate, nor consistent with the principles whereon a vertical diminution of the equation for  
the

whose climate is so very variable as that of Britain, settled weather should be chosen as the best time for observations. With any sudden fall of the barometer, in any assigned station below its mean height, it is apprehended that the rule will have a tendency to give defective results; and the contrary should happen when, from the increased weight of the atmosphere, it rises much above the mean height.

From what hath been said in the course of this paper, it will be perceived, that though the error of the rule is in general very small, yet now and then such irregularities do occur as plainly shew, that something still remains to be done, in order to perfect the theory of the barometer.

The existence, or otherwise, of a latitudinal equation being a point of the greatest consequence, should be determined with so much care as to leave no doubt remaining on that head. And as this can only be effected by differences that are extremely obvious, the observations for that purpose should be made at the equator, and as near as possible to the poles<sup>(t)</sup>. Peru is no doubt the best  
situation

the heat of the air was founded, I have since changed it to the mean barometer, or middle of the column of air intercepted between the two stations. In this way all the great heights have been re-computed: the smaller altitudes, ~~not~~ being sensibly affected by the alteration, continue as at first.

(t) Some idea may be formed what altitudes on the surface of the globe are  
accessible



situation on the globe for conclusive equatorial observations; but as it would be found very difficult to carry any scheme of that kind into execution, such as may be more easily obtained in our West India islands, which have the highest mountains, would be very satisfactory with respect to the expansion and weight of moist air, at different heights above the surface. At the tops of the mountains in the torrid zone, the observations would always be sufficiently cold; but it would be of use likewise, to have the coldest possible at the level of the sea, under or near one of the tropics, when the Sun was in the other.

With regard to observations in the frigid zones, Spitzbergen seems to be as proper a situation as any; though others may no doubt be found in the Northern parts of the Russian empire: and it is presumed, that the Petersburg academy would direct the experiments to be made.

accessible to man, by considering the height above the sea of the inferior line of perpetual snow. In the middle of the torrid zone it appears, from Mr. BOUGUER's observations, to be elevated 5201 yards, and 4476 about the tropics. In middle latitudes there is everlasting snow on the mountains at the height of 3300 yards. In the latitude of 80° North, Lord MULGRAVE found the inferior line of snow to be only about 400 yards above the sea: whence we may conclude, that the surface of the earth, at the pole itself, is for ever covered with snow.

The Peak of Teneriffe, Ætna, the mountains of Auvergne and Rouffillon, as well as Hecla in Iceland, are all very proper for observations in intermediate latitudes.

Within the island of Great Britain, Ben Nevis seems to be the best mountain for barometrical observations, because of its great height, its vicinity to the sea, and that there is very good ground close to its foot (which is rarely the case in the Highlands) for the measurement of the base that would be made use of in the geometrical operations.

One of the chief causes of error in barometrical computations, I apprehend, proceeds from the mode (though simplicity is in its favour) of estimating the temperature of the column of air from that of its extremities, which must be faulty <sup>(u)</sup> in proportion as the height and difference of temperature are great. Where very accurate conclusions are expected, simultaneous observations, at different times of the day, and different seasons of the year, should be made with several barometers, placed at different heights, each accompanied with a thermometer and manometer. By this method, the progression of temperature, as well as the law of diminution of the equation, from the position of the inferior barometer above the sea (if such diminution doth really take place)

(u) This is taken notice of by Mr. DE LUC.

would be obtained with certainty. Supposing, for instance, Ben Nevis was divided into four sections, five barometers, with as many observers, would be necessary. This number may seem great, but the expence of people employed in that way would be inconsiderable. And if it should be judged proper, there could not surely be any great difficulty in providing reasonable accommodation for an observer, who should live a whole year at the top of the mountain, while another made corresponding observations below.

But the perfecting of the theory of the barometer is not the only advantage that would accrue from a combination of these observations; for, while they were carrying on in different climates, or zones of the earth, good opportunities would offer of determining the refractions, as well as the force of gravity and figure of the globe, from the vibrations of the pendulum.

The mean expansion of common air is already found to be greater than what was formerly supposed; wherefore the mean refraction will be altered proportionably. And since the expansion of moist air is found to be so much greater than that of common air, a larger field for inquiry and investigation is now laid open.

With respect to the experiments with the pendulum, Mr. BOUGUER seems to have been the only person, so far

as I know, who hath taken the density of the medium in which it performed its vibrations into the account, and given us its length at the equator in vacuo. But if we are to judge of the density of the air in the frigid zone from the barometrical observations at Spitzbergen, the pendulum there must have lost so much of its weight, as to have lessened considerably the number of vibrations below what they would have been in vacuo, in the same temperature. Having considered the effect that this would produce, I collected the best experiments that have hitherto been made with the pendulum into one view, and having applied the equation that the density of the air, in which they severally vibrated, seemed to require; I found from computation, that the ratio of the diameters of the earth is (as Mr. BOUGUER supposed it) nearly that of 178 to 179, instead of 229 to 230, as estimated by Sir ISAAC NEWTON, and which agrees very nearly with the mean result from the measurement of the degrees of the meridian. The experiments with the pendulum are so simple and easy, may be repeated so often in all situations, and are so much more consistent with each other, than the measured lengths of degrees of latitude, that it appears to be incomparably the best method for determining the figure of the earth. And if it should really be found so flat a spheroid as the pendu-

lum seems to make it, both parallaxes and refractions, will require correction.

Upon the whole, though I wished to be concise in the recital of the experiments and observations contained in this paper, yet I found it necessary at the same time to be explicit. Some of them were either entirely new, or managed in a different manner from what they had formerly been. This forced me into a comparison of many minute circumstances attending the operations, and to a tedious, though necessary, combination of the various results. Without taking a comprehensive view of the whole matter, and stating every thing with fairness and candour, I could not convey to others the ideas I entertained of it myself; nor enable them to judge, how far I had been just in the conclusions already drawn, or consistent in my suppositions concerning such points as are yet left doubtful. If I have been obliged to differ from Mr. DE LUC, it is because the British observations, as well as his own (considered by their extremes) seem to authorize it: he is himself too candid to suppose, that I have had criticism in view, or indeed any other object, than that of contributing my mite towards the discovery of the truth, from the very good foundation which he hath already laid for it. I am aware it may be alledged, that I have rendered the theory of measuring heights by

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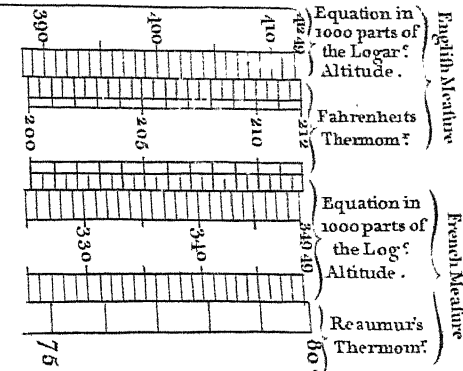
the barometer so much more complicate and difficult, as perhaps to deter others from applying it to useful purposes. To this I answer, that though it seem utterly impossible to render what is really intricate in its nature, extremely simple; yet that the best and surest method of arriving at simplicity at last will, in the first place, be to ascertain the limits of deviation of the rule, by a proper number of good observations, made in circumstances and situations as different as possible from each other. In the present state of the matter, I doubt not but the barometer will be found to give results sufficiently near the truth for all ordinary purposes, the nicer business of levelling alone excepted. It is the only instrument by which the relative heights of places, in very great and distant tracts of country, can easily and speedily be obtained, by the pressure of the atmosphere alone. The method of using it is attainable by all, requiring only a little habit, and some degree of attention to prevent the admission of air into the tube. Few people are qualified for the tedious and very laborious operations of accurate geometrical measurements. Mountainous countries rarely afford bases of sufficient length, which, to avoid error, must be measured again and again with the utmost care. Instruments of the most expensive kinds must be employed to take the angles; at the same time that a thorough knowledge of their use,

and a scrupulous attention to their various adjustments, become indispensably necessary. In short, the facility of one method, compared with the other, is so exceedingly obvious as to need nothing else to recommend it as a subject very curious and useful, and therefore well worthy of the researches of philosophers, till, by their united labours, it hath been brought to perfection.



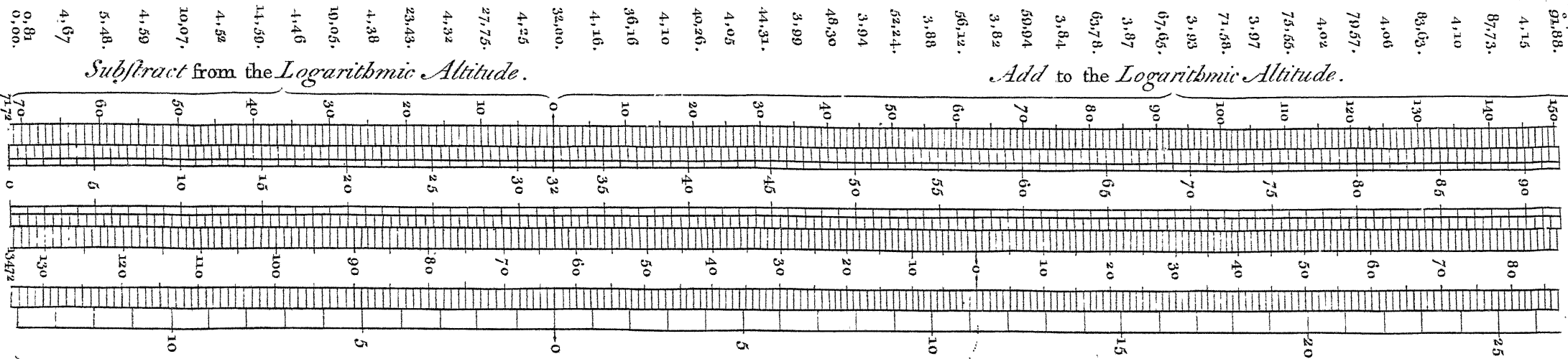


SCALE for the Equation of the Air.

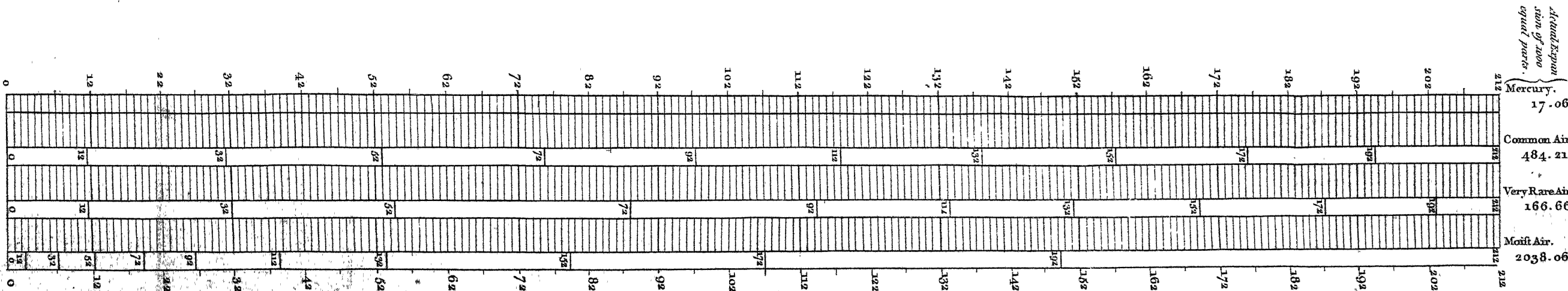


By means of these numbers expressing the Degrees of Fahr<sup>t</sup> below 51.88 answering to every 1000 parts of the Equation for the Air, the unequal Scale may be divided.

Add to the Logarithmic Altitude.



A SCALE expressing the Expansion of different kinds of Air with regard to Mercury affected by 212° of Fahrenheit.





## N° I. Computations of barometrical observations made on heights in and near London.

Geometrical heights of the stations in feet.	Date of the obser- vations, winds, &c.	Observed heights and inferior bar- ometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the heat of the quick- silver.	Equated heights of the barome- ters.	Logarithmic result in feet.	Logar. excess or defect in 1000 parts.	Temperature of the air,		Equation by the rule in 1000 parts, and also in feet.	Result by the rule,		Barometrical rule in feet.
								Parti- cular.	Mean.		Parti- cular.	Mean.	
St. Paul's Church- yard North-fide, and iron-gallery over the dome, 281 feet.	1774, Dec. 1. 9 <sup>h</sup> 27' wind N.W.	29.659 29.338	33 $\frac{3}{4}$ 34	—006 —006	29.653 29.332	283.6	{ +2.6 ft. = 9.1000	32 $\frac{3}{4}$ 33 $\frac{3}{4}$	33 $\frac{1}{4}$	{ + 35 = 1.1000	284.6		
	Dec. 31. 11 <sup>h</sup> 52' A.M. wind N.E.	30.187 29.864	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ 34 $\frac{3}{4}$	—011 —009	30.176 29.855	279.5	{ — 1.5 = 5.5	33 34	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ + 4 = 1.	280.5		10505
	April 22. 11 <sup>h</sup> 55' A.M. E. wind.	30.136 29.839	50 $\frac{1}{4}$ 53	—060 —069	30.076 29.770	266.5	{ —14.5 = 54.4	49 53	51	{ +47.5 = 12.7	279.2		11056
	1774, Ap. 22. 0 <sup>h</sup> 50' P.M.	30.206 29.842	55 $\frac{3}{4}$ 53 $\frac{3}{4}$	—080 —071	30.126 29.771	308.9	{ —15.1 = 49.	55 $\frac{1}{4}$ 53 $\frac{3}{4}$	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ +55. = 17.	325.9		10860
Top of Paul's stairs, and the laid gal- lery, 324 feet.	Dec. 1. 10 <sup>h</sup> 2' A.M.	29.717 29.344	37 35	—016 —009	29.701 29.335	323.1	{ — 0.9 = 3.	37 $\frac{3}{4}$ 34	35 $\frac{3}{4}$	{ + 6.3 = 2.	325.1	324.6	+0.6
	Dec. 31. 0 <sup>h</sup> 22' P.M.	30.230 29.858	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ 34 $\frac{3}{4}$	—011 —009	30.219 29.849	321.	{ — 3. = 9.3	34 $\frac{3}{4}$ 34 $\frac{3}{4}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ + 5.8 = 1.8	322.8		10565
Scotland-yard wharf, and Old Spaniard dining-room, 422 feet.	1774, Dec. 24. 10 <sup>h</sup> 7' A.M. N.E. wind.	30.844 30.349	33 $\frac{1}{2}$ 33 $\frac{3}{4}$	—005 —004	30.839 30.345	420.8	{ — 1.2 = 3.5	34 $\frac{1}{4}$ 33 $\frac{3}{4}$	33 $\frac{3}{4}$	{ + 4. = 0.9	421.7		10251
	1774, Nov. 28. 9 <sup>h</sup> 48' A.M.	29.684 29.287	35 $\frac{1}{2}$ 34 $\frac{3}{4}$	—011 —009	29.673 29.278	349.2	{ — 2.8 = 8.5	35 $\frac{3}{4}$ 34 $\frac{3}{4}$	35	{ + 7. = 2.4	351.6		10694
Great Pulteney- street, and the laid dining-room, 352 feet.	Dec. 9. 0 <sup>h</sup> 15' P.M. N.W. wind, snow,	29.647 29.234	27 $\frac{1}{2}$ 25 $\frac{3}{4}$	+015 +022	29.662 29.256	359.	{ + 7. = 19.7	27 $\frac{1}{2}$ 23 $\frac{3}{4}$	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ —14.5 = 5.2	353.8		10404
	Dec. 24. 10 <sup>h</sup> 52' A.M. N.E. wind.	30.758 30.343	35 33	—010 —003	30.748 30.340	348.1	{ — 3.9 = 11.2	34 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30 $\frac{3}{4}$	32 $\frac{5}{8}$	{ + 1.2 = 0.4	348.5		10398
	1775, June 13. 11 <sup>h</sup> 7' A.M. S.W. wind.	30.044 29.674	69 69	—121 —117	29.923 29.557	320.7	{ —31.3 = 97.6	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 72 $\frac{1}{2}$	70	{ +96. = 30.8	351.5		11116
	1776, May 10. 10 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	30.096 29.706	53 51 $\frac{1}{4}$	—069 —063	30.027 29.643	335.4	{ —16.6 = 50.	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ 49 $\frac{3}{4}$	50 $\frac{3}{4}$	{ +46.9 = 15.7	351.1		10971
Pagoda in Kew-gar- dens, 166.5 feet.	May 30. 11 <sup>h</sup> 40' A.M. S.W. wind.	29.900 29.521	66 63	—111 —100	29.789 29.421	323.9	{ —28.1 = 86.7	66 63	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ +81.8 = 26.5	350.4	353.5	+1.5
	June 20. 0 <sup>h</sup> 15' P.M.	30.268 29.898	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	—129 —127	30.139 29.771	320.1	{ —31.9 = 99.7	71 $\frac{1}{2}$ 71 $\frac{1}{2}$	71 $\frac{1}{4}$	{ +101. = 32.3	352.4		11416
	July 16. 0 <sup>h</sup> 15' P.M.	29.625 29.253	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 67 $\frac{1}{2}$	—113 —112	29.512 29.141	329.6	{ —22.4 = 68.	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 65 $\frac{1}{2}$	66 $\frac{3}{4}$	{ +87.4 = 28.8	358.4		11355
	Aug. 26. 10 <sup>h</sup> 35' A.M.	30.132 29.738	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ 57 $\frac{1}{4}$	—092 —082	30.040 29.656	335.2	{ —16.8 = 50.1	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ 56 $\frac{1}{2}$	57 $\frac{3}{4}$	{ +65. = 21.8	357.0		10887
Gun-wharf of Woolwich-warren, and upper story of Shooter's-hill inn, 444 feet.	Aug. 27. 11 <sup>h</sup> 45' A.M.	30.020 29.631	62 $\frac{1}{4}$ 60	—099 —091	29.921 29.540	334.	{ —18. = 54.	62 58 $\frac{1}{4}$	60	{ +70.2 = 23.4	357.4		11028
	Sept. 2. 10 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M.	29.294 28.918	60 58 $\frac{1}{2}$	—089 —084	29.205 28.834	333.1	{ —18.9 = 56.8	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ 59 $\frac{1}{2}$	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ +69. = 23.	356.1		11355
	1773, Dec. 20. 1 <sup>h</sup> 22' P.M. mean of 6 observations with 3 barometers.	29.351 29.226	49 $\frac{1}{4}$ 49 $\frac{1}{4}$	—052 —052	29.299 29.174	111.4	{ — 5.1 = 45.8	49 $\frac{1}{4}$ 49 $\frac{1}{4}$	49 $\frac{1}{4}$	{ +43.3 = 4.8	116.2		11184
	1774, Apr. 27. 4 <sup>h</sup> P.M. mean of 4 obs.	29.762 29.282	57 $\frac{1}{4}$ 56 $\frac{1}{2}$	—082 —077	29.686 29.305	420.4	{ —23.6 = 56.1	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ 58 $\frac{1}{2}$	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ +59.2 = 24.9	445.3		11170
Gun-wharf of Woolwich-warren, and upper story of Shooter's-hill inn, 444 feet.	Apr. 27. 6 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M. mean of 2 obs.	29.773 29.302	54 55 $\frac{1}{4}$	—072 —074	29.701 29.228	418.3	{ —25.7 = 61.4	49 49 $\frac{1}{2}$	49 $\frac{1}{4}$	{ +43.5 = 18.2	436.5	438.9	—5.1
	Apr. 28. 5 <sup>h</sup> A.M. mean of 5 obs.	29.805 29.336	44 $\frac{1}{2}$ 48 $\frac{1}{4}$	—041 —053	29.76 29.287	424.5	{ —19.5 = 46.	43 41 $\frac{1}{4}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ +24.5 = 10.4	434.9		11077

N<sup>o</sup> II. Computations of barometrical observations made on heights near Taybridge in Perthshire,  
and N<sup>o</sup> III. of those near Lanark.

N<sup>o</sup> II. near Taybridge.

Geometrical heights of the stations in feet.	Date of the observa- tions, winds, &c.	Observed heights of the interior and exterior ba- rometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the height of the quick- silver.	Reduced heights of the barome- ters.	Logarithmic result in feet.	Logar. excess of defect in 1000 ft. and also in 100 ft. parts.	Temperature of the air,		Equation by the rule in foot and also in 1000 ft. parts.	Result by the rule,		Error of the rule in feet.
								Parti- cular.	Mean.		Particu- lar.	Mean.	
Station at Weem, and top of Weem- craig, 700 $\frac{1}{4}$ feet.	1774, July 16. 11 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M. bright Sun-shine.	29.996 29.237	60 $\frac{1}{2}$ 65 $\frac{3}{4}$	-122 -107	29.874 29.130	657.2	{ -43.2 ft. = 43.2 } { = 69.5 = 69. }	65 $\frac{3}{4}$ 60	62 $\frac{3}{4}$	+ 27. = 50.6 ft.	707.8	-	1 7.6
Ditto station, and top of Bolfrack's craig, 1076 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.	July 16. 6 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M. calm and cloudy.	29.933 28.788	61 $\frac{3}{4}$ 58 $\frac{1}{2}$	-097 -083	29.836 28.705	1007.	{ = 69.5 = 69. }	60 56 $\frac{3}{4}$	58 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 67.5 = 68.5	1075.5	-	1. 11382
Ditto station, and top of Dull-craig, 1244 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.	July 18. 7 <sup>h</sup> 20' A.M.	29.825 28.500	58 $\frac{1}{4}$ 55	-086 -072	29.739 28.428	1174.	{ = 70.2 = 60. }	57 55	56	+ 60. = 70.4	1244.4	-	- 11354
Ditto station, and top of Knock-farlie, 1364 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.	July 18. 5 <sup>h</sup> 4' A.M.	29.816 28.347	55 $\frac{3}{4}$ 51	-077 -059	29.739 28.288	1303.5	{ = 61. = 46.8 }	54 48 $\frac{1}{2}$	51 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 47.5 = 62.	1365.5	-	+ 1. 11254
Ditto station, and that in Glenmore, 1279 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.	July 12. 7 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M.	29.528 28.161	58 51 $\frac{1}{4}$	-084 -060	29.444 28.101	1216.5	{ = 62.7 = 51.6 }	55 51 $\frac{1}{2}$	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 52. = 63.2	1279.7	-	- 11396
Ditto station, and South observatory on Schihallien, 2098 ft.	July 11. 7 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M.	29.643 27.432	58 $\frac{3}{4}$ 48	-086 -048	29.557 27.304	1989.8	{ = 108.2 = 54.4 }	58 47 $\frac{3}{4}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 51. = 101.5	2091.3	-	- 6.7 11554
Ditto station, and West summit of Schihallien, 3281 feet.	July 11. 7 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	29.595 26.194	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ 40	-089 -040	29.506 26.154	3142.3	{ = 138.7 = 44.1 }	56 45	50 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 43.5 = 136.7	3279.	-	- 2. 11693
Station in Glenmore, and the South obser- vatory, 818.76.	July 12. 5 <sup>h</sup> A.M.	29.610 26.223	50 $\frac{1}{4}$ 44	-062 -035	29.548 26.188	3145.5	{ = 135.5 = 43.1 }	50 $\frac{1}{4}$ 42	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 34.3 = 107.	3252.5	-	- 29.5 11690
The observation on Schihallien on July 11, by Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air,	July 12. 8 <sup>h</sup> P.M.	28.161 27.325	51 $\frac{1}{4}$ 48 $\frac{1}{2}$	-060 -050	28.101 27.275	777.4	{ = 41.4 = 53.2 }	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ 48	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 42. = 32.6	810.	-	- 8.8 11851
						3142.3	50 $\frac{1}{2}$ —39 $\frac{1}{2}$ —10 $\frac{1}{2}$ × 2.1			+ 22.7 = 71.3	3213.6	-	- 67.4

N<sup>o</sup> III. near Lanark.

Level of the Clyde at Lanark Bridge, and the station at the garden, 362 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.	1774, Aug. 20. 6 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	29.776 29.383	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ 61 $\frac{1}{4}$	-099 -094	29.677 29.289	342.9	{ = 19.6 = 57.1 }	62 62	62	+ 74. = 25.4	368.3	-	- 11083
	Aug. 23. 3 <sup>h</sup> 8' P.M.	29.956 29.563	64 $\frac{3}{4}$ 65	-107 -106	29.849 29.457	344.5	{ = 18. = 53.3 }	63 63	63	+ 77.8 = 26.8	371.3	-	- 11083
Level of the Clyde, and Stonebyre-hill, 654 feet.	Sept. 5. 8 <sup>h</sup> A.M.	29.626 29.232	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ 50 $\frac{1}{2}$	-067 -060	29.559 29.172	343.4	{ = 19.1 = 55.6 }	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ 49 $\frac{1}{2}$	51	+ 46. = 15.8	359.2	-	- 11182
	Sept. 7. 7 <sup>h</sup> 47' A.M.	29.864 29.467	50 $\frac{1}{2}$ 51	-061 -062	29.803 29.405	350.3	{ = 12.2 = 34.8 }	45 44	44 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 30.5 = 10.7	361.0	-	- 10875
Carmichael-well, and West-end of Carmichael-hill, 451 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet.	Sept. 7. 9 <sup>h</sup> A.M.	29.886 29.488	50 $\frac{1}{2}$ 51 $\frac{1}{4}$	-061 -063	29.825 29.425	351.8	{ = 10.7 = 30.4 }	47 41	44	+ 29. = 10.2	362.0	-	- 10875
	Sept. 7. 8 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M.	29.872 29.148	48 $\frac{1}{2}$ 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	-055 -045	29.817 29.103	631.6	{ = 22.4 = 35.4 }	46 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45 $\frac{1}{2}$	45 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 32.3 = 20.4	652.	-	- 2.0 10946
Carmichael-well, and top of Tinto, four feet below the summit of the Cairn, 1642.5 ft.	July 30. 5 <sup>h</sup> 40' P.M. S.W. wind, begin- ning to rain.	29.162 28.690	56 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	-076 -071	29.086 28.619	421.8	{ = 29.7 = 70.3 }	54 $\frac{1}{2}$ 53 $\frac{1}{2}$	54	+ 52.3 = 22.	443.8	-	- 7.7 11430
	Aug. 1. 11 <sup>h</sup> 40' A.M.	29.612 29.135	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ 60	-086 -089	29.526 29.046	427.1	{ = 24.4 = 57.1 }	57 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 57.1 = 24.4	451.5	-	- 11430
Carmichael-well, and top of Tinto, four feet below the summit of the Cairn, 1642.5 ft.	June 30. 1 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M.	28.991 27.284	61 $\frac{1}{4}$ 55 $\frac{1}{4}$	-093 -069	28.898 27.215	1563.6	{ = 78.9 = 50.5 }	58 51	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 53. = 83.3	1646.9	-	- 11684
	July 30. 6 <sup>h</sup> A.M.	29.063 27.335	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ 46 $\frac{1}{4}$	-062 -043	29.001 27.292	1582.6	{ = 59.9 = 38. }	51 44	47 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 36.4 = 57.4	1640.	-	- 11412
Mean of the observations on Tinto, with Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air,	Aug. 2. 8 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M.	29.608 27.846	54 $\frac{1}{4}$ 47 $\frac{1}{2}$	-072 -048	29.536 27.798	1580.3	{ = 62.2 = 39.3 }	51 $\frac{1}{2}$ 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	48	+ 39.6 = 62.4	1642.7	-	- 1645.5 + 3.0
	Aug. 27. 1 <sup>h</sup> 50' P.M. hail.	28.710 27.008	59 $\frac{1}{2}$ 53 $\frac{1}{4}$	-087 -063	28.623 26.945	1570.3	{ = 72.2 = 46. }	55 $\frac{1}{2}$ 47 $\frac{1}{4}$	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 45.6 = 73.3	1642.6	-	- 11704
Mean of the observations on Tinto, with Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air,	Aug. 27. 1 <sup>h</sup> 40' P.M.	28.736 27.032	60 $\frac{1}{2}$ 53	-090 -062	28.646 26.970	1571.	{ = 71.5 = 45.5 }	55 $\frac{1}{2}$ 50	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 49. = 76.8	1647.8	-	- 11704
	Aug. 27. 1 <sup>h</sup> 50' P.M.	28.716 27.010	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ 52 $\frac{1}{4}$	-083 -061	28.633 26.949	1579.5	{ = 63. = 40. }	55 $\frac{1}{2}$ 48 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 46.4 = 73.3	1651.3	-	- 39.
51 $\frac{1}{2}$ —39 $\frac{1}{2}$ —11.3 × 2.1													- 39.

## N° IV. Computations of barometrical observations on heights near Edinburgh.

Geometrical heights of the stations in feet.	Date of the obser- vations, winds, &c.	Observed heights of the interior thermometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the heat of the quick- silver.	Equated heights of the barome- ters.	Logarithmic result in feet.	Or defect in ft. and also in 100th parts.	Temperature of the air,		Equation by the rule in foot- parts, and also in feet.	Result by the rule,		Error of the rule in feet.
								Particu- lar.	Mean.		Particu- lar.	Mean.	
Leith Pier-head, and Calton-hill, 344 feet.	1774, Aug. 12. 5 <sup>h</sup> 20' A.M.	30.086 29.704	52 $\frac{1}{2}$ 49 $\frac{3}{4}$	-067 -058	30.019 29.646	325.8	-18.2 ft. = $\frac{96}{1000}$	50 $\frac{3}{4}$ 49	{	+ $\frac{47}{1000}$ = 15.3 f.	341.1	-	- 11037
	Aug. 15. 6 <sup>h</sup> 45' A.M.	29.568 29.197	55 $\frac{1}{4}$ 53 $\frac{1}{2}$	-075 -068	29.493 29.129	323.6	-20.4 = 60.3	54 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	+ 54 <sup>+</sup> = 17.5	341.1	339.5	-4.5
Leith Pier-head, and top of Arthur's Seat, 803 feet.	Aug. 15. 10 <sup>h</sup> 15' P.M. S.W. wind and rain.	29.625 29.282	56 $\frac{1}{4}$ 53 $\frac{1}{2}$	-078 -068	29.547 29.214	319.1	-24.9 = 78.	54 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	+ 54 <sup>+</sup> = 17.2	336.3	-	- 11761
	Aug. 15. 5 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M. S.W. wind and rain.	29.567 28.704	55 $\frac{1}{4}$ 51 $\frac{1}{2}$	-075 -002	29.492 28.642	762.	-41. = 53.8	54 50 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	+ 50. = 38.	800.	-	- 11399
Leith Pier-head, and Kirk Yetton cairn, 1544 feet.	Sept. 15. 10 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M. S.W. wind.	29.953 28.291	57 $\frac{1}{2}$ 52 $\frac{1}{4}$	-084 -063	29.869 28.228	1472.5	-71.5 = 48.6	54 $\frac{1}{2}$ 47 $\frac{1}{4}$	{	+ 47. = 69.2	1541.7	-	- 2.3
	Sept. 15. 1 <sup>h</sup> 15' P.M. S.W. wind.	29.561 28.272	63 $\frac{1}{4}$ 54	-100 -068	29.461 28.204	1136.2	-63.8 = 56.2	56 $\frac{1}{2}$ 48 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	+ 52. = 59.	1195.2	-	- 4.8
Level of Hawk-hill study, and bottom of Small-rock, 744 ft. below the top of Arthur's Seat, 7024 feet.	1774, Dec. 1. 2 <sup>h</sup> 45' P.M.	29.565 28.770	35 32	-010 —	29.555 28.770	701.5	0.9 = 1.3	33 30 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	- 0.5 = 0.3	701.2	-	- 10724
	Dec. 10. 9 <sup>h</sup> 46' A.M.	29.494 28.687	20 $\frac{1}{2}$ 20 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 038 + 037	29.532 28.724	722.9	+ 20.5 = 28.3	20 $\frac{1}{2}$ 20 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	- 26.6 = 19.2	703.7	705.3	+ 2.9
Base of Hawk-hill observatory, and bottom of the Small-rock on Arthur's Seat, 684 feet.	1775, Jan. 26. 1 <sup>h</sup> 35' P.M.	29.490 28.674	26 $\frac{1}{2}$ 24 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 018 + 036	29.508 28.700	723.5	+ 21.1 = 29.	26 23	{	- 17. = 12.4	711.1	-	- 10419
	Nov. 10. 11 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	29.959 29.177	38 34	-020 -006	29.939 29.171	677.2	- 6.8 = 10.	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ 34	{	+ 8.6 = 5.8	683.	-	- 10646
Base of Hawk-hill observatory, and bottom of the Small-rock on Arthur's Seat, 684 feet.	Nov. 17. 9 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	29.543 28.709	33 $\frac{1}{2}$ 30 $\frac{1}{4}$	-004 + 005	29.539 28.774	683.8	—	32 29 $\frac{1}{4}$	{	- 3.5 = 2.4	681.4	684.5	+ 0.5
	1776, Jan. 31. 10 <sup>h</sup> 45' A.M.	30.009 29.229	15 $\frac{1}{2}$ 24	+ 056 + 026	30.065 29.225	711.7	+ 27.7 = 39.	14 20	{	- 35.2 = 25.	686.7	-	- 10184
Hawk-hill garden- door, and bottom of the rock on Ar- thur's Seat, 730.8 feet.	July 25. 2 <sup>h</sup> 20' P.M.	30.157 29.427	70 $\frac{1}{2}$ 66 $\frac{1}{2}$	-125 -111	30.032 29.316	628.8	-55.2 = 87.7	69 $\frac{3}{4}$ 67	{	+ 94. = 58.2	687.0	-	- 11416
	1775, Dec. 27. 11 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	29.807 28.985	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 29 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 004 + 007	29.811 28.992	725.9	- 4.9 = 6.7	29 $\frac{1}{2}$ 29 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	- 5.7 = 4.1	721.8	-	- 10707
Hawk-hill garden- door, and bottom of the rock on Ar- thur's Seat, 730.8 feet.	Dec. 27. 8 <sup>h</sup> 40' A.M.	29.778 28.945	35 $\frac{1}{4}$ 33	-013 -003	29.765 28.942	730.6	—	35 $\frac{1}{4}$ 32 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	+ 5.4 = 4.	734.6	-	- 1042
	1776, Feb. 1. 9 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	29.883 29.032	28 $\frac{1}{4}$ 26 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 011 + 019	29.894 29.051	745.4	+ 14.6 = 19.6	24 $\frac{1}{2}$ 26 $\frac{1}{2}$	{	+ 15.4 = 11.5	733.9	737.7	+ 3.9
In these two last observations Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air being substituted,	Aug. 3. 2 <sup>h</sup> 20' P.M.	30.135 29.348	75 $\frac{1}{2}$ 72	-141 -127	29.994 29.221	680.4	-50.4 = 74.	72 $\frac{3}{4}$ 69	{	+ 100. = 68.	748.4	-	- 11286
	1776, Feb. 1. 745.4 30 <sup>h</sup>	{ 7-25° 5' = 14° 2' x 2.1 {											
In these two last observations Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air being substituted,	Aug. 3. 680.4 70 <sup>h</sup>	{ 7-39° 7' = 31° x 2.1 {											
		{ 724.7											



N<sup>o</sup> V. Computations of barometrical observations made on heights near Linhouse.  
and N<sup>o</sup> VI. of those near Carnarvon in North Wales.

N<sup>o</sup> V. near Linhouse.

Geometrical heights of the stations in feet.	Date of the observations, winds, &c.	Observed heights of the interior and superior barometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the heat of the quick- silver.	Equated heights of the barome- ters.	Logarithmic reduct in feet.	Fr. and alio in 1000 parts.	Temperature of the air,		Equation by the rule in 1000 parts, and alio in feet.	Result by the rule,		Error of the rule in feet.	Ratio of the height of quick- silver to air, at height 1.
								Parti- cular.	Mean.		Particu- lar.	Mean.		
Linhouse and East- cairn hill, 5 feet below the summit, 1176.6 feet.	1775, Nov 11. 8 <sup>h</sup> A.M. calm and clear.	29.216 27.912	32° 30	— +006	29.216 27.918	1184.2	+7.6 ft. = $\frac{64}{1000}$	32° 29	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ $\frac{3.4}{1000}$ = 4. ft.	1180.	1181.3	+ 4.7	10894
	Nov. 15. noon.	28.941 27.632	32 27	— +015	28.941 27.647	1191.9	+ 15.3 = 12.8	32 26	29	— $\frac{7.}{1000}$ = 8.3	1182.6	1182.6	—	—
Linhouse, and East- cairn hill, 18 feet below the top, 1165.6 feet.	1776, Dec. 17. 2 <sup>h</sup> P.M.	28.990 27.688	31 $\frac{1}{2}$ 24	+001 +025	28.991 27.713	1174.8	+ 9.2 = 7.9	30 $\frac{1}{2}$ 22	26 $\frac{1}{8}$	— $\frac{14.}{1000}$ = 16.4	1158.4	1158.4	— 7.2	10910
Substituting Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air, — 39.7—26° 1' = 13°.6 x 2.1														
Linhouse, and West- cairn hill, 11 ft. be- low the top, 1178.4 ft.	1775, Dec. 1. 1 <sup>h</sup> P.M. high S.W. wind, fog above.	29.250 28.003	49 45	—055 —042	29.195 27.961	1125.3	— 53.2 = 47.3	48° 45	46 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 35. = 39.4	1164.7	1164.7	— 13.7	11441
	Dec. 8. 1 <sup>h</sup> P.M. clear and windy.	29.686 29.521	41 39	—029 —023	29.657 29.288	379.7	— 6.8 = 18.	40 39	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 18. = 6.8	386.5	386.5	—	10736
Linhouse, and Cor- ston hill, 4 feet be- low the top, 386.5 ft.	1776, Dec. 16 <sup>h</sup> 11 <sup>h</sup> A.M. high N. wind, clear weather.	28.580 27.714	34 $\frac{3}{4}$ 32	—009 —	28.571 27.714	793.6	+ 1.6 = 2.	34 $\frac{1}{4}$ 30	32 $\frac{1}{8}$	+ 0.3 = 0.2	793.8	793.8	+ 1.8	11077
	Dec. 17. 1 <sup>h</sup> A.M. light W. wind.	28.574 27.710	32 25	— +022	28.574 27.732	779.4	+ 2.8 = 3.6	31 23 $\frac{1}{2}$	27 $\frac{1}{4}$	— 10.2 = 9.3	770.1	770.1	— 6.5	11068
Linhouse, and Cor- ston hill, 388.5 feet.	Nov. 20. 1 <sup>h</sup> P.M. snow had fallen, high W. wind.	27.992 27.582	35 33	—009 —003	27.983 27.579	379.	— 9.5 = 28.2	33 33	33	+ 2.2 = 0.8	379.8	379.8	— 8.7	11540

N<sup>o</sup> VI. near Carnarvon.

Carnarvon Quay, and Moel Eilio, 2371 feet.	1775, Aug. 4. 1 <sup>h</sup> 7' P.M. rain above, clear below.	29.693 27.714	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ 54	—098 —066	29.595 27.148	2248.8	— 122.2 + 54.4	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ 51	56 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 59.6 = 134.	2382.8	2382.8	—	11594
	Aug. 8. 0 <sup>h</sup> 7' P.M. S. wind, and hazy weather above.	30.036 27.543	68 57	—118 —075	29.918 27.468	2226.3	— 194.7 = 65.	68 $\frac{1}{4}$ 56	62 $\frac{3}{8}$	+ 75. = 167.	2393.3	2393.3	+ 20.8	—
Carnarvon Quay, and Peak of Snow- don, 3555 feet.	Aug. 8. 2 <sup>h</sup> 7' P.M. S. wind, weather something clearer.	30.027 27.533	69 $\frac{1}{2}$ 58 $\frac{1}{2}$	—122 —079	29.905 27.454	2228.3	— 142.7 = 64.	69 $\frac{1}{2}$ 57	63 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 76.8 = 171.	2399.3	2399.3	—	11566
Substituting Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air, 2231.1 60°.8—39°.7=21°.1 x 2.1														
Carnarvon Quay, and Peak of Snow- don, 3555 feet.	Aug. 7. 6 <sup>h</sup> 7' A.M.	30.154 26.462	56 $\frac{1}{2}$ 47 $\frac{1}{2}$	—081 —045	30.073 26.417	3377.6	— 177.4 = 52.5	56 $\frac{1}{2}$ 45 $\frac{1}{2}$	50 $\frac{3}{4}$	+ 45. = 152.6	3530.2	3530.2	—	11646
	Aug. 7. 9 <sup>h</sup> 7' A.M.	30.165 26.468	60 49 $\frac{1}{2}$	—092 —050	30.073 26.418	3376.6	— 178.4 = 52.8	60 47 $\frac{1}{4}$	55 $\frac{3}{4}$	+ 52.5 = 177.4	3554.	3554.	—	—
Carnarvon Quay, and Peak of Snow- don, 3555 feet.	Aug. 7. 0 <sup>h</sup> 7' P.M.	30.140 26.488	61 $\frac{1}{2}$ 60 $\frac{1}{2}$	—097 —083	30.043 26.405	3363.4	— 191.6 = 57.	61 $\frac{1}{4}$ 54	57 $\frac{7}{8}$	+ 61. = 205.	3568.4	3568.4	—	11704
	Aug. 7. 2 <sup>h</sup> 7' P.M.	30.144 26.478	62 53 $\frac{1}{2}$	—099 —063	30.045 26.415	3355.3	— 199.7 = 59.5	62 51	56 $\frac{1}{2}$	+ 58.5 = 196.	3551.3	3551.3	—	—
Carnarvon Quay, and Peak of Snow- don, 3555 feet.	Aug. 14. 8 <sup>h</sup> 7' A.M. fog above.	29.984 26.271	56 $\frac{1}{2}$ 42 $\frac{1}{2}$	—080 —031	29.904 26.240	3405.9	— 149.1 = 43.8	55 $\frac{1}{4}$ 43	49 $\frac{1}{8}$	+ 40. = 136.2	3542.1	3542.1	—	11643
	Aug. 14. 9 <sup>h</sup> 7' fog and rain.	29.978 26.279	58 $\frac{1}{2}$ 44	—087 —035	29.891 26.244	3390.6	— 164.4 = 48.5	57 $\frac{1}{2}$ 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	50 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 44.3 = 150.4	3541.	3541.	—	—
Carnarvon Quay, and Peak of Snow- don, 3555 feet.	Aug. 14. 10 <sup>h</sup> 7'.	29.972 26.280	60 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	—091 —036	29.881 26.244	3381.9	— 173.1 = 51.2	60 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	52 $\frac{1}{4}$	+ 48. = 162.7	3544.6	3544.6	—	—
	Aug. 14. 11 <sup>h</sup> 7'.	29.974 26.280	61 $\frac{1}{2}$ 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	—097 —037	29.877 26.243	3379.4	— 175.6 = 52.	61 45	53	+ 50. = 169.	3548.4	3548.4	—	11704
Carnarvon Quay, and Peak of Snow- don, 3555 feet.	Aug. 14. 0 <sup>h</sup> 7'.	29.976 26.282	62 $\frac{1}{2}$ 46 $\frac{1}{2}$	—100 —042	29.876 26.240	3381.5	— 173.5 = 51.3	62 46	54	+ 52.3 = 176.2	3557.7	3557.7	—	—
	Barometrical height of Snowdon from the mean of two days observations,	—	—	—	—	3379.1	— 175.9 = 52.1	—	53.1	+ 176.3 = 176.3	—	3548.9	— 6.1	—
Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air, — 53°.1—39°.7=13°.4 x 2.1=28.14														
Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air,												3474.2	— 80.8	—

## Computations of part of Mr. DE LUC's barometrical observations, answering to the coldest and hottest temperatures

of the air.

Stations with their geometrical heights in feet.	Date of the observations.	Observed heights of the inferior thermometer, and of the barometer.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the heat of the quicksilver.	Equated heights of the barometers.	Logarithmic refect in feet.	Logarithmic excess or defect in 1000th parts.	Temperature of the air,		Equation by the parts, and altitudes in feet.	Result by the rules,		Error of the rule in feet.	Ratio of the weight of the air, at the height, to the weight of the air at the base.
								Particular.	Reduced.		Particular.	Mean.		
Coldest of the Sun-riding observations.	1st. 230.5	1760, Feb. 9. 8 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M. { 28.986 28.703	33 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 26 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-006 +018	28.980 28.721	233.9	{ + 3.4 ft. = 14.5 = 1000	24 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 26 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	25 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 3 0ft.	229.9	-	-	10598
		March 9. 6 <sup>h</sup> A.M. { 28.875 28.586	37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 28 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-018 +012	28.857 28.598	234.9	{ + 4.4 = 18.7	27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 32	29 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 4.9 = 1.2	233.7	-	-	10598
	2d. 457.	March 9. 6 <sup>h</sup> 8' A.M. { 28.875 28.342	37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 30	-018 +006	28.857 28.348	463.7	{ + 6.6 = 14.5	27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 31 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	29 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 5 6 = 2 6	461.1	-	+ 4.1	10732
	3d. 624.5	March 9. 6 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M. { 28.875 28.170	37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 32	-018 —	28.857 28.170	627.8	{ + 4.3 = 7.	27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 34	30 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 3 5 = 2.3	625.5	-	+ 1.	10876
	4th. 776.7	March 9. 6 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M. { 28.875 28.009	37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 32	-018 —	28.857 28.009	777.2	{ + 0.5 = 0.7	27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 32 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	30	{ = 4.4 = 3.4	773.8	-	- 2.9	10978
Coldest of the ordinary observations.	5th. 977.2	March 9. 6 <sup>h</sup> 45' A.M. { 28.875 27.798	37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 33 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-018 -005	28.857 27.793	978.9	{ + 1.7 = 1.7	27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 32	29 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 5. = 4.9	974.0	-	- 3.2	11000
	2d. 457.	Feb. 9. 9 <sup>h</sup> A.M. { 28.997 28.470	32 28 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	— +012	28.997 28.482	466.9	{ + 9.8 = 21.	25 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 29	27 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 14. = 6.5	460.4	-	+ 3.4	10649
	3d. 624.5	Feb. 9. 9 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M. { 28.997 28.298	32 30	— +006	28.997 28.304	630.3	{ + 5.8 = 9.2	28 30	29	{ = 9. = 5.7	624.6	-	-	10814
	4th. 776.7	Feb. 9. 9 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M. { 28.997 28.142	32 32	— —	— —	780.2	{ + 3.6 = 4.5	40 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 32	36 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 3.5 = 2.7	777.5	-	-	10901
	5th. 977.2	Feb. 9. 10 <sup>h</sup> A.M. { 28.997 27.931	33 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 35 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-006 -011	28.991 27.920	980.8	{ + 3 6 = 3 5	40 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 37	38 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 1.1 = 1.1	979.7	-	+ 2.5	10949
	6th. 1298.9	Feb. 9. 10 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M. { 29.002 27.604	32 37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	— -017	29.002 27.587	1303.4	{ + 4.5 = 3.5	41 36 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	38 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 1.1 = 1.4	1302.	-	+ 3.1	11024
	7th. 1513.3	Feb. 9. 10 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M. { 29.008 27.393	33 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 41	-006 -027	29.002 27.366	1513.	{ + 0.3 = 0.2	41 37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	39 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 3.3 = 5.	1518.	-	+ 4.7	11120
	8th. 1938.9	Feb. 9. 11 <sup>h</sup> A.M. { 29.002 26.955	35 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 39 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-011 -021	28.991 26.934	1917.7	{ + 21.2 = 11.0	43 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	40 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 6. = 11.5	1929.2	-	+ 9.7	11306
	9th. 2094.5	Feb. 9. 11 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M. { 28.997 26.771	35 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 39 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-011 -021	28.986 26.750	2091.8	{ + 2.7 = 1.5	43 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 39 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	41 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 6.6 = 12.6	2104.4	-	+ 9.9	11241
	10th. 2356.3	Feb. 9. 11 <sup>h</sup> 45' A.M. { 28.992 26.494	35 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 39 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-011 -021	28.981 26.473	2358.6	{ + 2.3 = 1.	44 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 38 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	41 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 6 6 = 15.6	2374.2	-	+ 17.9	11274
	11th. 2486.3	Feb. 9. noon. { 28.986 26.366	33 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 37 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-006 -016	28.980 26.350	2479.	{ + 7.3 = 3.0	44 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 36	40 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 5.6 = 14.	2493.	-	+ 6.7	11357
	14th. 2922.	1759, July 15, 4 <sup>h</sup> P.M. { 28.759 25.950	74 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 71	-131 -105	28.628 25.845	2664.8	{ - 257.9 = 96.7	88 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 74	81	{ = 101. = 269.2	2934.	-	+ 12.	12541
	15th. 3119.2	July 15. 2 <sup>h</sup> P.M. { 28.797 25.778	74 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 71	-131 -108	28.666 25.670	2876.5	{ - 242.7 = 84.5	85 68 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	76 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 96.5 = 300.8	3177.3	-	-	12439
	10th. 2356.3	July 15. 3 <sup>h</sup> 50' P.M. { 28.764 25.778	74 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 68 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-131 -103	28.633 25.675	2841.4	{ - 277.8 = 97.7	90 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 74	82	{ = 102. = 290.2	3131.6	-	-	12603
Hottest of the ordinary observations on the highest stations.	10th. 2752.	1760, July 20. 10 <sup>h</sup> 15' A.M. { 28.775 26.499	71 72 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-121 -117	28.654 26.382	2152.6	{ - 203.7 = 94.7	87 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 74	80 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 102. = 219.6	2372.2	-	+ 14.9	12429
	14th. 2486.3	July 20. 3 <sup>h</sup> 15' P.M. { 28.731 26.460	74 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 72 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-131 -118	28.600 26.342	2143.	{ - 213.3 = 99.5	91 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 75 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	83 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 106. = 227.2	2370.2	-	-	12439
	14th. 2486.3	July 20. 10 <sup>h</sup> 45' A.M. { 28.769 26.366	71 68 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-121 -104	28.648 26.262	2266.	{ - 221.3 = 97.7	87 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 74 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	81	{ = 101.8 = 230.7	2496.7	-	-	12468
	12th. 2752.	July 20. 3 <sup>h</sup> P.M. { 28.726 26.327	76 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 72 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-138 -116	28.588 26.211	2262.	{ - 224.3 = 99.	92 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 76 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	84 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 106. = 239.7	2501.7	-	-	12468
	13th. 2877.5	July 20. 1 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M. { 28.758 26.100	72 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 68 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-126 -103	28.632 25.997	2576.3	{ - 235.7 = 94.	88 72 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	80 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 97 6 = 245.6	2761.9	-	-	12504
Hottest of the ordinary observations on the highest stations.	13th. 2877.5	July 20. 2 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M. { 28.720 26.066	76 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 71	-138 -110	28.582 25.956	2511.2	{ - 240.8 = 95.7	92 77	84 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 106. = 265.2	2777.4	-	-	12504
	13th. 2877.5	July 20. noon. { 28.747 25.977	72 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> 68 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	-126 -103	28.621 25.874	2629.3	{ - 248.2 = 94.7	89 73 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	81 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	{ = 101.8 = 267.6	2897.1	-	-	12548
Mean of the hottest, 957/1000														81.7 75.6

Compu-

Continuation of Mr. DE LUC's barometrical observations.

Stations with their barometrical heights in feet.	Date of the obser- vations.	Observed heights of the inferior and superior ba- rometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the height of the quick- silver.	Equated heights of the barome- ters.	Logarithmic result in feet.	Logar excess or defect in 1000 parts.	Temperature of the air,		Equation by the rule in foot- parts, and also in feet.	Result by the rule,		Error of the rule in feet.
								Parti- cular.	Re- duced.		Particu- lar.	Mean.	
The Dole, by Sir George Shuck- burgh, measure- ments, is above the lake of Geneva 4093 ft. Mr. DE LUC's lowermost barometer was higher than the lake 83 ft. hence the vertical dif- ference of the baro- meters, 4210 feet.	1764, July 29. 1 <sup>h</sup> P.M.	28.953 24.951	78 $\frac{1}{2}$ 67	-145 -095	28.808 24.856	3845.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -365 \text{ ft.} \\ = \frac{949}{1000} \end{array} \right\}$	77 $\frac{1}{2}$ 64 $\frac{1}{2}$	70 $^{\circ}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + \frac{312}{1000} \\ = 339.8 \text{ ft.} \end{array} \right\}$	4184.8	-	-
	July 20. 1 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M.	28.942 24.940	78 $\frac{1}{2}$ 65 $\frac{1}{2}$	-145 -090	28.797 24.850	3841.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -369. \\ = 96. \end{array} \right\}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$ 65	70	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 88.2 \\ = 338.8 \end{array} \right\}$	4179.3	-	-
	1765, July 21. 10 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	28.698 24.640	67 59 $\frac{3}{4}$	-108 -075	28.590 24.565	3954.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -256. \\ = 64.7 \end{array} \right\}$	67 $\frac{1}{2}$ 51	58	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 60. \\ = 237. \end{array} \right\}$	4191.	4194.	-16.
	1764, July 8. 8 <sup>h</sup> A.M.	28.692 24.636	71 57 $\frac{3}{4}$	-121 -070	28.571 24.566	3935.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -275. \\ = 70. \end{array} \right\}$	73 56	63	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 72.4 \\ = 285. \end{array} \right\}$	4220.	-	-
	1757, June 2. 6 <sup>h</sup> A.M.	30.077 29.817	76 76	-142 -141	29.935 29.686	217.7	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -20. \\ = 92. \end{array} \right\}$	-	73	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 103. \\ = 22.4 \end{array} \right\}$	240.1	-	Mean 12595
Light-house of Genoa, 237.6 ft	June 2. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ P.M.	30.088 29.846	82 $\frac{1}{2}$ 84 $\frac{1}{2}$	-163 -169	29.925 29.677	216.8	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 21. \\ = 96. \end{array} \right\}$	-	79	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 108. \\ = 23.4 \end{array} \right\}$	240.2	-	-
	June 23. 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ A.M.	30.116 29.857	79 75	-152 -138	29.964 29.719	214.8	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -24.9 \\ = 107. \end{array} \right\}$	-	76	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 104. \\ = 22.3 \end{array} \right\}$	237.1	238.2	+ 0.6 12672
	June 23. 5 <sup>h</sup> 45' P.M.	30.041 29.796	79 79	-152 -150	29.889 29.646	212.7	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -24.9 \\ = 117. \end{array} \right\}$	-	75	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 106.5 \\ = 22.6 \end{array} \right\}$	235.3	-	-
	July 26. 1 <sup>h</sup> P.M.	30.021 29.774	83 $\frac{3}{4}$ 83 $\frac{3}{4}$	-166 -164	29.855 29.610	214.7	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} -22.9 \\ = 107. \end{array} \right\}$	-	77	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 111. \\ = 23.8 \end{array} \right\}$	238.5	-	-
		30.019 + .071 30.090	77 77	-146 -141	29.944 29.125	722.6	-	Mean 76	-	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 111.5 \\ = 80.6 \end{array} \right\}$	803.2	-	-
For the barometrical height of Turin above Genoa,		29.197 + .069 29.266	77 77	-141 -126	29.190 28.705	436.6	-	72 $\frac{3}{4}$	-	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 99. \\ = 43.2 \end{array} \right\}$	479.8	-	-
	For the barometrical height of Mr. DE LUC's room above Turin,	29.319 28.831	72 $\frac{3}{4}$ 72 $\frac{3}{4}$	-129 -126	29.190 28.705	436.6	-	72 $\frac{3}{4}$	-	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 99. \\ = 43.2 \end{array} \right\}$	479.8	-	-

Mr. DE LUC's room above Genoa, 1283.  
Surface of the Lake of Geneva in summer below Mr. DE LUC's room, 53.3

Surface of the Lake of Geneva above the Mediterranean, 1229.7

By Mr. DE LUC's rule the Lake is elevated above the Sea 1126 French, or 1200 English feet.

In the observations on the Dole, if Mr. DE LUC's equation for the air is substituted instead of that resulting from the British observations, the barometrical height will be,  $3894 \quad 66^{\circ}.6 - 39^{\circ}.7 = 26^{\circ}.9 \times 2.1 \left\{ \begin{array}{l} + 56.5 \\ = 220. \end{array} \right\} = 4114. - 96.0$  Error.

Mr. DE LA CAILLE's barometrical Observations, Sept. 22, 1751, at the Cape of Good Hope.

East signal on the table-hill above the sea, —	3417	11 <sup>h</sup> 30' A.M.	30.174 — .173 30.001	66	— 111	29.890	3192.	{ — 211. = 66.	{ 66° 50	58	{ + 62.4 = 199.2	3391.2	—	— 11.8 11713
Vertical distance of the barome- ters in feet,	3403		26.502	52	— 058	26.444	3289.	{ — 179. = 544.	{ 66 50	58	{ + 62.4 = 205.2	3494.2	—	+ 40.2 11662 Mean 11687
West signal above the sea, —	3468	0 <sup>h</sup> 30' P.M.	30.174 — .197 29.977	66	— 111	29.866	3289.	{ — 544.	{ 66 50	58	{ + 62.4 = 205.2	3494.2	—	+ 40.2 11662 Mean 11687
Vertical distance of the barome- ters,	3454		26.377	50	— 053	26.324	3289.	{ — 544.	{ 66 50	58	{ + 62.4 = 205.2	3494.2	—	+ 40.2 11662 Mean 11687
With Mr. DE LUC's Equation for the air,			3426	58° — 39° = 18°.3	× 2.1 { + 38.4 = 124.4	3364.4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	— 62.6



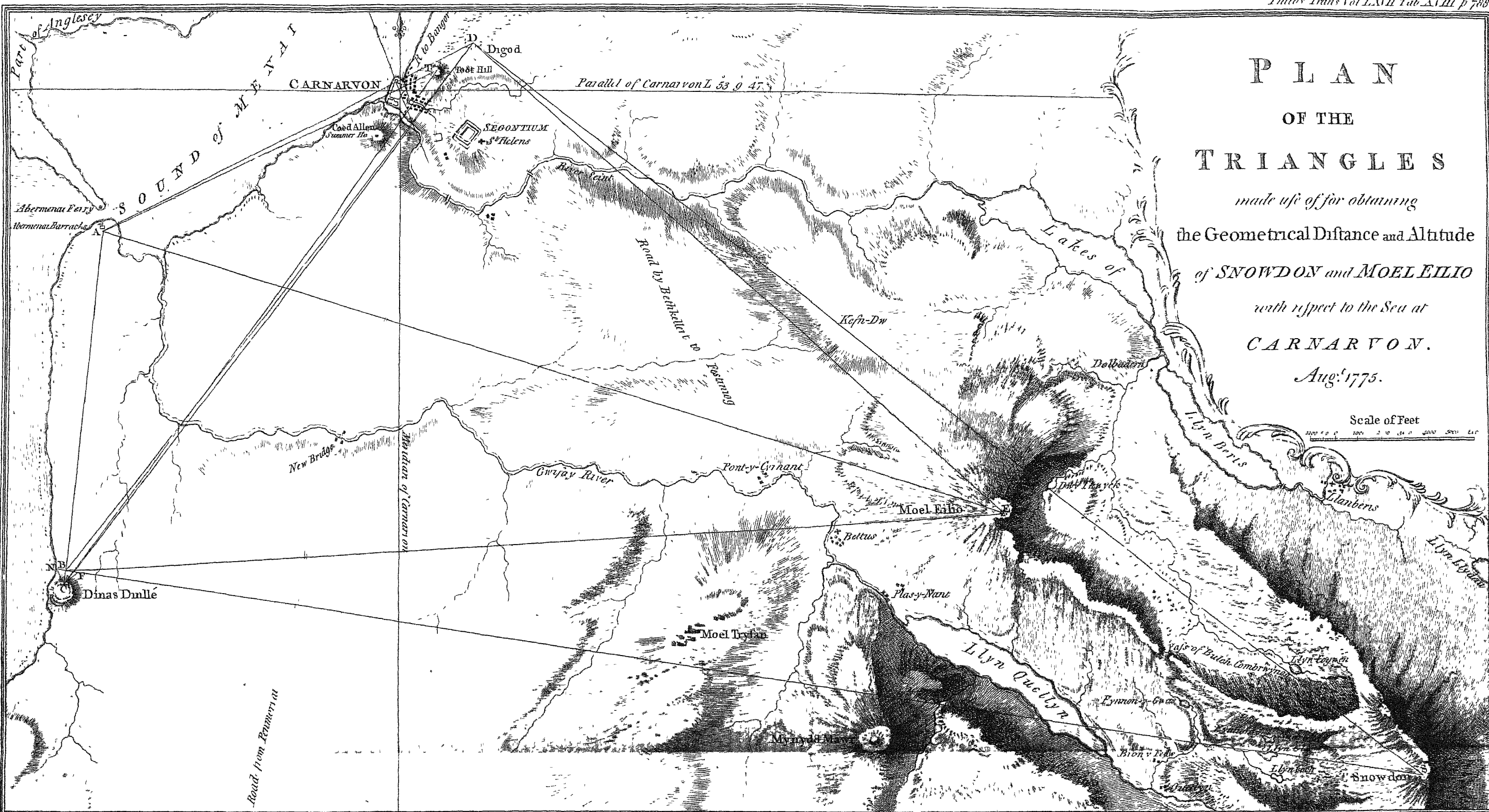
Computations of barometrical observations made on heights that have not been determined geometrically.

Date.	Stations of the barometers.	Observed heights of the inferior and superior barometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the heat of the quicksilver.	Squared heights of the barometers.	Logarithmic result in feet.	Temperature of the air, Particular.	Mean.	Equation for the heat of the air in room parts, and in feet.	Vertical distance of the barometers.	Horizontal distance of the barometer in miles.
	Level of the sea at Inver-gourie, and Belmont-castle.	{ 29.932 29.734 }	54° 57	{ -072 -081 }	29.860 29.653	{ 181.3 }	{ 54° 54 }	54°	{ + +9.8f. }	191.1	10½
1773, July 8.	Superior barometer, Top of Kinpurney-hill.	{ 29.988 28.974 }	65 62	{ -108 -095 }	29.880 28.879	{ 887.9 }	{ 63 57 }	60	{ +71. +63.1 }	951.	2½
1776, Sept. 12.	Ditto.	{ 30.331 29.275 }	56½ 51	{ -080 -061 }	30.251 29.214	{ 908.9 }	{ 57½ 50 }	53½	{ +56. +50.8 }	955.3 959.7	2½
	Castle Menzies.	{ 29.756 29.674 }	60½ 64½	{ -092 -104 }	29.64 29.570	{ 82.7 }	{ 61 63 }	62	{ +74. +6.1 }	88.8	28½
Sept. 11.	Top of Farragan.	{ 29.794 27.344 }	63½ 52½	{ -102 -062 }	29.692 27.282	{ 2205.8 }	{ 65 50 }	57½	{ +62.4 +137.8 }	2343.6	29
Sept. 17.	Top of Ben Lawers.	{ 29.800 25.830 }	55 38	{ -075 -017 }	29.725 25.813	{ 3677. }	{ 54 36 }	45	{ +30. +110. }	3787.	42
	Top of Ben More.	{ 30.000 26.148 }	55½ 42	{ -077 -029 }	29.923 26.119	{ 3542.9 }	{ 52½ 37 }	44½	{ +31. +109.8 }	3652.7	53½
Sept. 12.	Top of Ben Glloe.	{ 29.712 26.142 }	62 48	{ -097 -041 }	29.615 26.101	{ 3291.3 }	{ 62 45 }	53½	{ +51. +167.9 }	3459.2	27½
Sept. 13.	Blair of Athol-lawn.	{ 29.636 29.380 }	60 58	{ -091 -083 }	29.545 29.297	{ 219.6 }	{ 58 60½ }	59½	{ +67. +14.7 }	234.3	30
Aug. 22.	Top of King's Seat.	{ 29.904 28.791 }	68 66½	{ -116 -108 }	29.788 28.683	{ 985. }	{ 67 64 }	65½	{ +84.3 +83. }	1068.	6¼
1775, Sept. 5.	Hill of Barry.	{ 29.870 29.345 }	62 56	{ -098 -076 }	29.772 29.269	{ 444. }	{ 60 56 }	58	{ +64. +28.4 }	472.4	4½
Sept. 5.	Dunfinane-hill,	{ 29.784 28.913 }	62 59	{ -097 -086 }	29.687 28.827	{ 766. }	{ 62 59 }	60½	{ +71.5 +54.8 }	820.8	7½
1774, Aug. 29 and 30. mean of three observations.	Quay at the new bridge of Glasgow, and station at Larark.	{ 29.560 28.850 }	55½ 52½	{ -077 -066 }	29.483 28.784	{ 625.2 }	{ 53½ 50½ }	52½	{ +50.0 +31.3 }	656.5	22½
1772, Aug. 6. 2 <sup>h</sup> P.M.	Freeport in the island of Illa, 19 feet above the sea, and summit of the South-pap of Jura,	{ 30.224 27.642 }	67 57	{ -114 -076 }	30.110 27.566	{ 2300.2 }	{ 60 57 }	58½	{ +66.3 +152.5 }	2452.7	4½
1772, Sept. 25. 9 <sup>h</sup> 25' A.M.	Hafniford in Iceland, at the sea-shore, and summit of Mount Hecla.	{ 29.859 24.722 }	49 38	{ -056 -016 }	29.803 24.706	{ 4886.8 }	{ 43 24 }	33½	{ +34 +16.6 }	4503.4	76

Computations of Mr. BOUGUER's observations in Peru, supposing them to have been made at corresponding times, and in the mean temperature of the day, between the coldest of the morning and hottest of the afternoon.

Relative heights of the stations, with respect to the South-sea,		Stations of the barometers, with their geometrical distance in feet.	Observed heights of the inferior and superior barometers.	Temperature of the quicksilver.	Equation for the heat of the quick-silver.	Equated heights of the barometers.	Mean heights of the barometers.	Logarithmic result in feet.	Logar. excess or defect in ft. and also in 1000th parts.	Mean temperature of the air.	Equation for the heat of the air in 1000th parts, and in feet.	Result by the rule in feet.	Error of the rule.	Ratio of the weight of quick-silver to air,	
														Particular	Mean.
Heights of the columns of air, whose bases stood at the sea,		15833 { South-sea, Coraçon,	29.930 16.808	84 $\frac{1}{2}$ 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	-169 -022	29.761 16.786	23.27	14922.	{ - 911 ft. = $\frac{61.6}{1000}$	64°	{ + $\frac{61.6}{1000}$ = 919. ft.	15841.	+ 8.0	14590	14553
		15564 { South-sea, Pichincha,	— 16.963	84 $\frac{1}{2}$ 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	— -024	29.761 16.939	23.35	14685.6	{ - 878.4 = 60.	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ + 62. = 920.4	15606.	+ 42.	14517	
		9374 { South-sea, Quito,	— 21.403	84 $\frac{1}{2}$ 65 $\frac{1}{2}$	-078 —	29.761 21.325	25.54	8685.5	{ - 688.5 = 80.	75	{ + 90. = 781.7	9467.2	+ 93.2	13273	13120
		7840 { South-sea, Carabourou,	— 22.625	84 $\frac{1}{2}$ 66 $\frac{1}{2}$	-084 —	29.761 22.541	26.15	7240.5	{ - 599.5 = 83.	75 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ + 96.5 = 698.7	7939.2	+ 99.2	12968	
Superior sections of the columns of air, with the distances of their bases from the sea,	Coraçon, 15833 Carabourou, 7840	7993 { Carabourou, Coraçon,	— —	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	— —	22.541 16.786	19.66	7681.6	{ - 311.4 = 40.5	55	{ + 35.2 = 274.4	7952.	- 41.	16623	16565
		7724 { Carabourou, Pichincha,	— —	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	— —	22.541 16.939	19.74	7445.1	{ - 278.9 = 37.3	55 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ + 36.5 = 271.7	7716.8	- 7.2	16507	
	Coraçon, 15833 Quito, 9374	6459 { Quito, Coraçon,	— —	65 $\frac{1}{2}$ 43 $\frac{1}{2}$	— —	21.325 16.786	19.05	6236.5	{ - 222.5 = 35.7	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	{ + 33.2 = 207.	6443.5	- 15.5	17149	17021
	Pichincha, 15564 Quito, 9374	6190 { Quito, Pichincha, Mean of the four superior columns,	— — —	65 $\frac{1}{2}$ — 44 $\frac{1}{2}$	— — —	21.325 16.939	19.13	6000.1	{ - 189.9 = 31.6	55	{ + 34. = 204.	6204.1	+ 14.1	16893	
	Quito, 9374 Carabourou, 7840	1534 { Carabourou, Quito,	— —	66 $\frac{1}{2}$ 65	— —	22.541 21.325	21.93	1445.	{ - 89. = 61.6	66	{ + 61. = 88.	1533.	- 1.	15089	
									$\frac{36.3}{1000}$	55	—	—	—	16793	





GEOMETRICAL OPERATIONS.

<p>The Base AB, situated on a perfectly level Plain, was measured twice in contrary directions, between the Barracks of Abermenor and the bottom of Dinas Dvulle, an ancient British Fortification, on the Sea Shore. The length of the Iron Chain made use of on this occasion, was ascertained by means of accurate Deal Rods, applied to it every Morning &amp; Evening, before and after the operation of the Field. The two measurements agreed to within 1/8 of an Inch, and made the length of the Base 4206 f. This Base AB, was afterwards prolonged to C, the Top of the Dinas by means of the side Base BF 417 f. Thus the distance BC, being 482.2 feet, the total Base AC amounts to 4688.2 feet N, High Watermark's Neap Tide. D, a small Eminence called the Digod, E, the Foot Hill of Carnarvon. S, The Peak of Snowdon. E, A Cairn of Stones on Moel Elion.</p> <p>The Latitude of Carnarvon was found to be 53° 9' 27" and the Variation of the Needle, by two Azimuths of the Sun, taken on the 13 of Aug. at 3.5 and 5.5 P.M. is 18° 30' westerly.</p> <p>The Height of Moel Elion above Carnarvon Quay 28 ft. was regulated from the complete operation on the Digod, the nearest point to the Hill, as it is preferred to that deduced from the Angle of Elevation taken from</p>	<p>Triangles. CBF and CBN for the prolongation of the Base B C, and distance of N from C.</p> <p>Angles. CBF 81 10 40 BCF 42 55 25 BFC 52 63 55 NBC 98 46 50 BCF 30 8 10 CNB 51 4 50 DAC 123 17 50 ADC 25 48 30 ACD 30 53 40 DCB 30 53 40 CBD 148 35 24 BDC 0 30 56 ABD 92 36 15</p> <p>Sides. Feet. BC 482.2 NC 62.5 AD 17169.7 CD 27949.7 BC 482.2 BD 27537.1</p> <p>Triangles. DSB for the distance of Snowdon from B and D.</p> <p>Angles. DSB 20 42 55</p>	<p>Triangles. DEB and DAE, For the distance of Moel Elion from D and A.</p> <p>Angles. DEB 44 37 25 DAE 43 40 16 DEB 23 53 23 CAT 122 9 17 ACT 76 56 43 ATO 27 33 63 C 11 34 37 S 3 29 7 N 16 34 53 S 4 47 64 E 4 34 33 E 3 24 57 T 0 38 47</p> <p>Sides. Feet. DE 20319.6 AE 30190.2 AT 15439</p> <p>Angles. From B. 23 S 3 29 7 From C. Dep. N 16 34 53 From D. 1 E 4 34 33 From A. 1 E 3 24 57 T 0 38 47</p>	<p>Relative Heights. Feet. 3493.2 62.3 4.6 3560.1 97.3 4.6 101.9 101.3 4.6 109.7 7.8 3567.9 3486.7 47.3 4.6 3569.1 106.3 3565.4 3568.4</p> <p>For the Altitude of Moel Elion above D, and the Sea at Carnarvon.</p>	<p>Relative Heights. Feet. 2283.8 16.3 4.6 2204.7 106.3 2371.0 23. 2384 2381.6 20.1 4.6 2365.3 3486.7 47.3 4.6 237.7 106.5 2364.2 2377.1</p> <p>For the Altitude of Moel Elion above A, and the Sea at Carnarvon.</p>
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made variable. I added that the same effect might be produced without the double refraction of the rock crystal, with a prism made of common glass, only smaller than the aperture of the object-glass. The rays which pass through the prism would then form an image which would be seen out of its natural place; and those which pass without would give another image, in the same place it would have appeared in, if the prism had not been there.

A few days after, the Abbé FONTANA was told, that the Abbé ROCHON had thought of another micrometer with a prism of rock crystal, which, approaching more or less to the focus of the object-glass, had the advantage of producing a very great effect, and might be achromatic; that having accordingly had his instrument executed, and made several observations with it, he had prepared a paper on the subject, to be read at the next meeting

ajouté que l'on pourroit avoir le même effet sans la double réfraction du cristal de roche, en faisant un prisme à verre simple, mais plus petit que l'ouverture de l'objectif. Les rayons qui passent par le prisme, formeroient alors une image déplacée de sa position naturelle, et les autres qui passeroient dehors, donneroient l'autre image, à la même place qu'elle auroit, s'il n'y avoit point de prisme.

Quelques jours après on a annoncé à M. FONTANA que M. l'Abbé ROCHON avoit imaginé un autre micrometre à prisme de cristal de roche, qui, s'approchant plus ou moins du foyer de l'objectif, avoit l'avantage de produire un effet très grand, et de pouvoir être acromatique: qu'ayant fait executer son instrument, et fait avec lui plusieurs observations, il avoit préparé un mémoire  
sur

meeting of the Academy. This the Abbé FONTANA immediately told me, and I repeated what I had said to him the first time on the effect of this micrometer; adding at the same time the precise measure of the scale for the measure of the same effect, and the facility of obtaining the same thing without the rock crystal; mentioning likewise other advantages which might be derived from the common glass prism not covering the whole aperture of the object-glass; and, amongst others, that of being able to measure much greater angles by this means than by the double refraction of the rock crystal.

The Abbé ROCHON did accordingly read his paper to the Academy, and mention has been made of it in the public prints: he has therefore the merit of having thought of the same thing, at the same time with, or perhaps before

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sur cet objet, pour lire à la prochaine séance de l'Académie. Mr. l'Abbé FONTANA eut la bonté de m'en avertir immédiatement; ce fut pour lors que je lui répétai ce que j'avois eu l'honneur de lui dire la première fois sur l'effet de ce micrometre, en y ajoutant la mesure précise de l'échelle pour la mesure du même effet, et la facilité d'obtenir la même chose sans le cristal de roche, avec d'autres avantages que l'on pouvoit tirer du prisme à verre simple, ne couvrant pas toute l'ouverture de l'objectif, et entre autres celui de pouvoir mesurer par ce moyen des angles beaucoup plus grands, que par la double réfraction du cristal de roche.

M. l'Abbé ROCHON a réellement lu à l'Académie son mémoire, et on en a fait mention dans les gazettes: ainsi il a le mérite d'avoir imaginé la même chose, dans

before me, without any knowledge whatever of my ideas on the subject; he has been the first who announced it to the world, who had it executed, and who made use of it: I have therefore no pretensions whatsoever on that head; he has the merit of a great discovery, and astronomy has the sole obligation of it to him.

But the Abbé ROCHON has only made use of the double refraction of the rock crystal for his micrometer, and I am assured he has said, that his prism could give him no more than six degrees. Now it is well known, that pieces of rock crystal, large enough and pure enough for these purposes, are extremely rare; besides, the difficulty of working them is great, that substance being harder than glass, and requiring the utmost attention in cutting, in order to obtain the difference desired between the two refractions. I think therefore, that it will be doing an  
essential

dans le même tems, peut être avant moi, et absolument sans avoir eu aucune connoissance de mes idées sur le même objet; de l'avoir annoncé le premier au public, de l'avoir exécuté, et de s'en être servi le premier: ainsi je n'ai rien à prétendre de ce côté là: il a le mérite d'une belle découverte, et l'astronomie lui en a toute l'obligation.

Mais M. l'Abbé ROCHON n'a employé, pour son micrometre, que la double refraction du cristal de roche; et on m'a assuré qu'il a dit, que son prisme ne pouvoit lui donner que jusqu'à six degrés. On fait bien que les pieces assez grandes de cette matiere, et assez pures, sont très rares; outre la difficulté de la travailler, étant plus dure que le verre, et quelle attention il faut avoir pour la bien couper afin d'avoir la différence des deux refractions que l'on veut. Ainsi  
je

essential service, to propose another micrometer of common glass, to explain the theory of it, and to extend it to much larger angles, which may render it applicable to the optical instruments made use of in the navy, in taking geographical latitudes and longitudes.

I had already made a prism of this sort, and shewed the Abbé FONTANA its effect for the double image of the Sun on his excellent little achromatic glass: the two images were procured by applying this prism to the object-glass with the hand, in such a manner that it covered only one-half of it: pushing it more or less forward, occasioned a change in the brightness of the light of the two images, and shewed that they might be made equally clear. By changing the inclination of this piece, the distance between the two images was varied, which did not alter  
when

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je crois rendre un service encore plus considerable, en proposant cette autre espece de micrometre à verre simple, en developpant sa théorie, en l'étendant aux angles beaucoup plus grands, ce qui donne le moyen de l'appliquer aussi aux instrumens d'optique, que la marine doit employer pour observer les latitudes et longitudes géographiques.

J'avois déjà fait faire un prisme de cette espece; et fis voir au même M. l'Abbé FONTANA son effet pour la double image du Soleil, sur son excellente petite lunette acromatique: on avoit les deux images, en l'appliquant à la main sur l'objectif, de maniere qu'il n'en couvroit que la moitié. En le poussant plus ou moins avant, on changeoit la vivacité de la lumiere des deux images, où l'on voyoit qu'on pouvoit les réduire à une clarté egale; en variant l'inclinaison de cette piece on varioit la distance des deux images, qui n'avoit aucune varia-



when its distance from the object-glass was varied without the glass. This piece was a common prism, which gave a refraction a little greater than the apparent diameter of the Sun: I added another to it afterwards, of the same kind and equal, both of them having circular bases. Turning one of the two parts upon its axis, will vary the angle from 0, to double each in particular, which occasions the two images to approach to, or recede from, each other. A much slower variation is obtained by the greater or less distance of the prism from the object-glass; but there is a particular reason for which one cannot give it too large a one, the contraction of the pencil of rays belonging to each point of the object, not allowing that distance to be very great, for fear of weakening too much the direct image towards the middle of the field, by the inter-

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tion en changeant, hors de la lunette, sa distance à l'objectif. Cette pièce étoit un seul prisme simple, qui donnoit une refraction un peu plus grande que le diamètre apparent du Soleil: j'y ai fait ajouter après un autre semblable et égal; l'un et l'autre ayant les bases circulaires: en tournant sur son axe l'une des deux parties, on variera l'angle depuis zero, jusqu'au double de chacun en particulier, ce qui fait approcher et éloigner les deux images entre elles: on obtient une variation beaucoup plus lente par l'éloignement plus grand ou plus petit du prisme à l'objectif; mais il y'a une raison particulière pour laquelle on ne peut pas lui en donner un trop grand; car le retrecissement du pinceau de rayons appartenans à chaque point de l'objet, ne permet pas de l'en éloigner trop, ce qui, vers le milieu du champ, affoiblirait trop l'image directe, en interceptant une trop grande



interception of too great a part of the same pencil, which in the end would occasion its being altogether lost.

I have in hand, making for me, a rude machine in which one of the pieces may be turned by the hand upon its axis, to make the distance between the two images somewhat larger than that which is intended to be measured, as for instance the diameter of the Sun; and by the help of a moveable screw, one may carry the prism, thus composed, to a distance from the object-glass, by a motion similar to that of the small mirror of the telescope. I have had it adapted to an ordinary glass of about four feet, where its effect, for the Sun's diameter, must be much greater than an inch of motion in a minute; for the other planets one may have ten or fifteen lines in a second, or even more. Generally the scale is the whole length of the glass for the total refraction of the prism, which likewise

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grande partie du même pinceau, et à la fin la feroit perdre totalement.

Je fais faire actuellement une machine grossiere, dans laquelle on peut tourner une des deux pieces à la main, sur son axe, pour rendre la distance des deux images un peu plus grande que celle que l'on veut mesurer, comme du diametre du Soleil; et à l'aide d'une vis de rappel, on peut eloigner le prisme, ainsi composé, de l'objectif, par un mouvement semblable à celui du petit miroir des telescopes. Je l'ai fait adapter à une lunette ordinaire de près de quatre piés, où son effet, pour le diametre du Soleil, doit être de beaucoup plus d'un pouce de mouvement par minute; et pour les autres planetes on peut avoir 10 ou 15 lignes par seconde, et plus encore. Généralement l'échelle est toute la longueur de la lunette pour

wife is the case in the Abbé ROCHON's prism, for the difference of the two refractions. But one may vary the angle by applying the prism without the glass near the object-glass, and turning one of the parts upon its axis. In that case, the scale of the excess of the sum of the refractions of the two parts of the prism above the difference, will be in length no more than half the circumference of a circle, though the circle may be made as large as one pleases; but the difference of the distance of the images, will not be proportional to the difference of the arcs run through by the index. In order to determine the relation which the motion of the index bears to the variation of the distance between the two images, one must have the solution of a geometrical problem, which is easily gained by spherical trigonometry; but it will be always better to  
deter-

la réfraction totale du prisme, ce qui est le même pour la différence des deux réfractions dans le prisme de M. l'Abbé ROCHON. Mais on peut varier l'angle en appliquant le prisme hors de la lunette, à côté de l'objectif, en faisant tourner une des deux parties sur son axe. Alors l'échelle de l'excès que la somme des réfractions des deux parties du prisme a sur la différence, n'aura pour sa longueur que la demi circonférence d'un cercle, quoiqu'on puisse faire ce cercle aussi grand que l'on veut; mais la différence de la distance des images ne sera pas proportionnelle à la différence des arcs parcourus par l'index. Pour déterminer la relation du mouvement de l'index avec la variation de la distance des deux images, il faut résoudre un problème de géométrie, et j'en ai la solution bien simple par la trigonométrie sphérique; mais il vaudra toujours beaucoup mieux déterminer

determine this relation by an actual terrestrial observation of a divided ruler, observed at a given distance.

When the angle happens to be a large one, the colours would naturally be such as would greatly deform one of the two images of the object, namely, that given by the rays that pass through the prism; but this is easily remedied, at least in a great measure, by making each prism of two pieces, one of common and the other of flint-glass. One may multiply the composed achromatic prisms with variable angles by making the one give degrees from 5 to 5, or from 2 to 2, and the other the minutes. One may put two on the outside near the object-glass, which will change the distance of the images by the circular motion, and give the angle required a little larger than the real one; and another within which  
will

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ce rapport par une observation actuelle terrestre d'une règle divisée, et observée à une distance donnée.

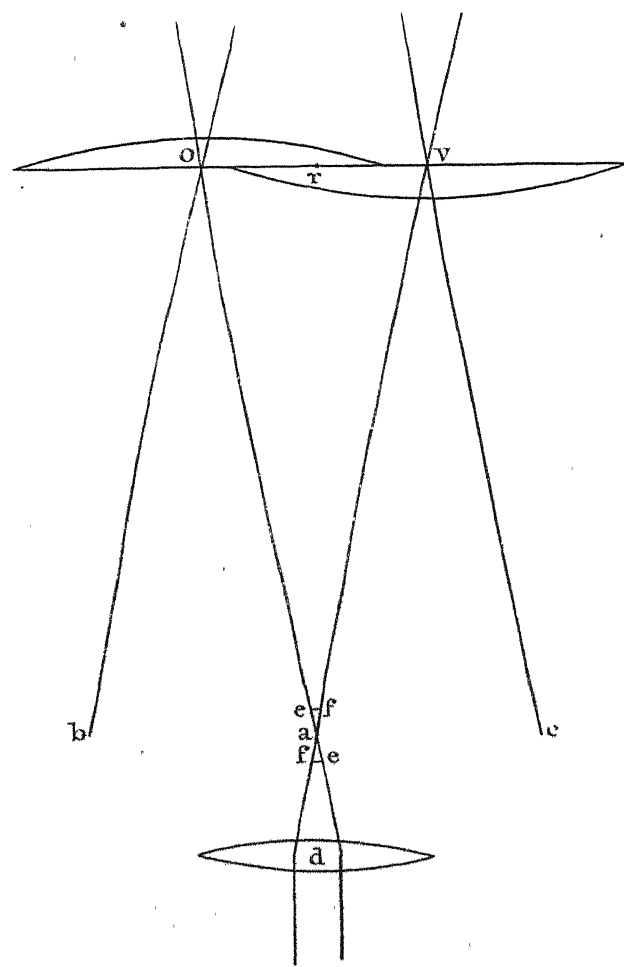
Quand il s'agit d'un grand angle, on auroit des couleurs qui déformeroient beaucoup une des deux images de l'objet, c'est à dire celle qui est donnée par les rayons passés à travers du prisme: on les évite aisément, au moins en grande partie, en composant chaque prisme de deux pièces, une de verre commun, et l'autre de *flint-glass*. On peut multiplier les prismes composés acromatiques et à angles variables, en faisant que l'un donne les degrés de 5 en 5, ou de 2 en 2, et l'autre les minutes: on peut en mettre deux dehors, près de l'objectif, qui changeront la distance des images par le mouvement circulaire, et donneront l'angle cherché un peu plus grand que le véritable; et un autre dedans, qui  
donnera.

will exactly give the seconds. I have already thought of the instruments requisite for obtaining all these objects with accuracy, as well as for the application of a variable prism to the common sailor's octant, and have by me the solution of the necessary problems: this will be the object of a work I am preparing. In the mean time I publish this, to give others an opportunity of hitting on something better concerning the mechanical construction of these instruments.

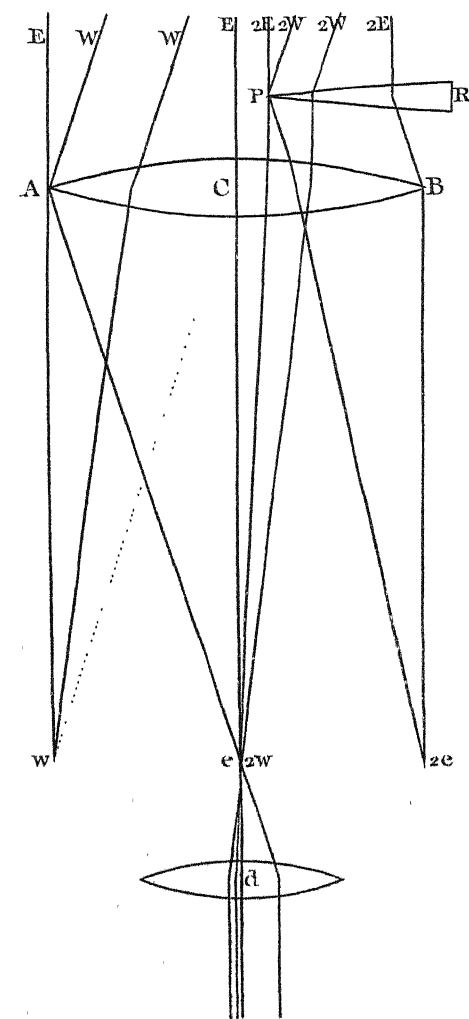
donnera, avec toute précision, les secondes. J'ai déjà imaginé les instrumens nécessaires pour avoir avec exactitude tous ces objets, comme aussi pour l'application d'un prisme variable à l'octant de marine ordinaire, ayant aussi la solution des problemes nécessaires. Tout cela fera l'objet d'un ouvrage que je prépare sur cette matiere. En attendant je publierai dans les differens journaux ce Prospectus, pour donner plutôt à tout le monde le moyen d'imaginer sur la forme mechanique des instrumens, quelque chose de mieux que ce qui m'est venu dans l'esprit sur ce sujet nouveau, et bien interessant.



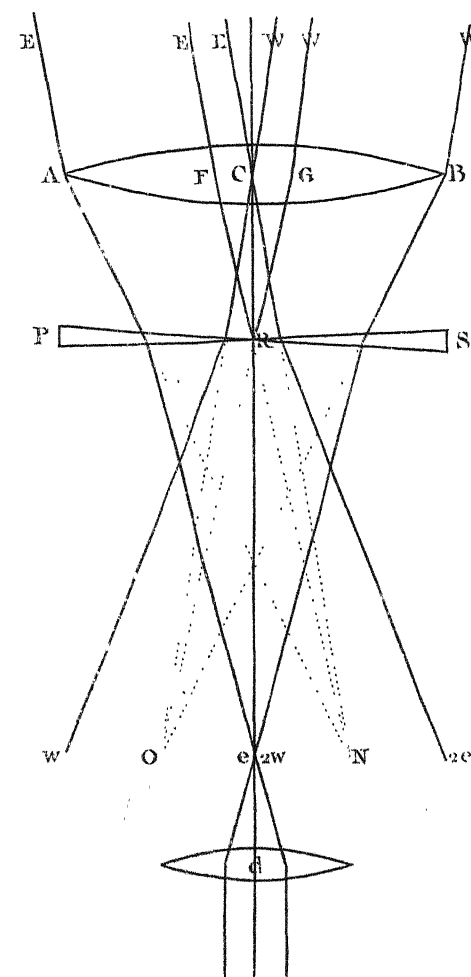




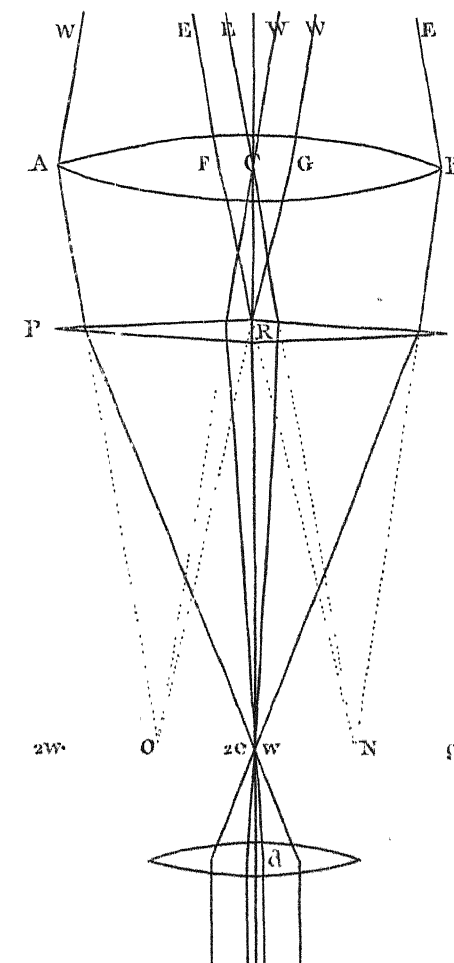
*Fig. I.*



*Fig. II.*



*Fig. III.*



*Fig. IV.*



XXXVI. *Account of a new Instrument for measuring small Angles, called the prismatic Micrometer. By the Rev. Nevil Maskelyne, D. D. F. R. S. and Astronomer-Royal.*

Read Dec. 18, 1777. **P**RACTICAL astronomy was much benefited by the invention of the wire micrometer, for measuring differences of right ascension and declination: nor did it receive less advantage from Mr. SAVERY's most ingenious invention of the divided object-glass micrometer, which has been rendered more commodious by the late Mr. JOHN DOLLOND's application of it to the object-end of a reflecting telescope, or the present Mr. PETER DOLLOND's application of it to the object-end of an achromatic refracting one.

But, valuable as the object-glass micrometer undoubtedly is, some difficulties have been found in the use of it, owing to the alterations in the focus of the eye, which are apt to cause it to give different measures of the same angle at different times. For instance, in measuring the Sun's diameter, the axes of the pencils of rays, which come through the two segments of the object-glass from

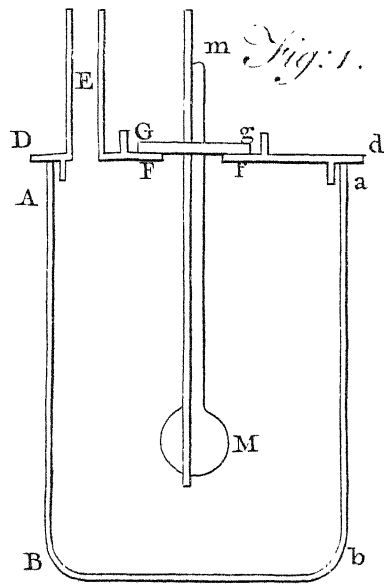


contrary limbs of the Sun, crossing one another at the focus of the telescope under an angle equal to that of the Sun's diameter, the union of the limbs of the two images of the Sun cannot appear perfect unless the eye be disposed to see objects distinctly which are placed at point of intersection. But if the eye be disposed to see objects distinctly, which are placed nearer the object-glass than the intersection is, the two limbs will appear separated by the interval of the axes of the pencils in that place; and if the eye be disposed to see objects distinctly, which are placed farther from the object-glass than the intersection is, the two limbs will appear to encroach upon each other by the distance of the axes of the pencils, after their crossing, taken at that place.

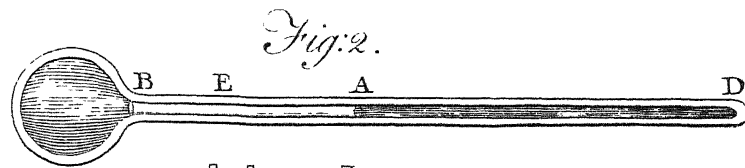
To explain this, let  $ov$  (plate XIX. fig. 1.) represent the centres of the two semi-circular glasses of the object-glass micrometer, separated to the distance  $ov$  from each other, subtending the angle  $oav$ , equal to the Sun's diameter, at the point  $a$ , which is the common focus of the two pencils of rays having  $oa$  and  $va$  for their axes, namely, those proceeding from contrary sides of the Sun, and passing through the contrary semi-circles; and let  $d$  be the eye-glass. It is evident, that if  $d$  be properly placed to give distinct vision of objects placed at the point  $a$ , the rays  $oa$ ,  $va$ , as well as all the other rays belonging



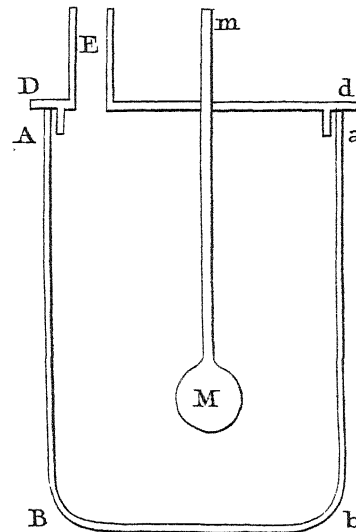




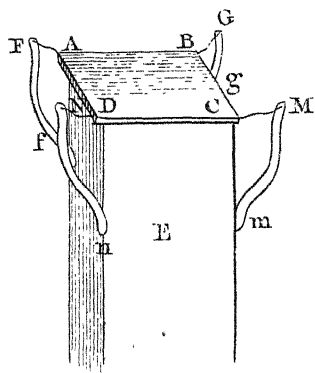
*Fig. 1.*



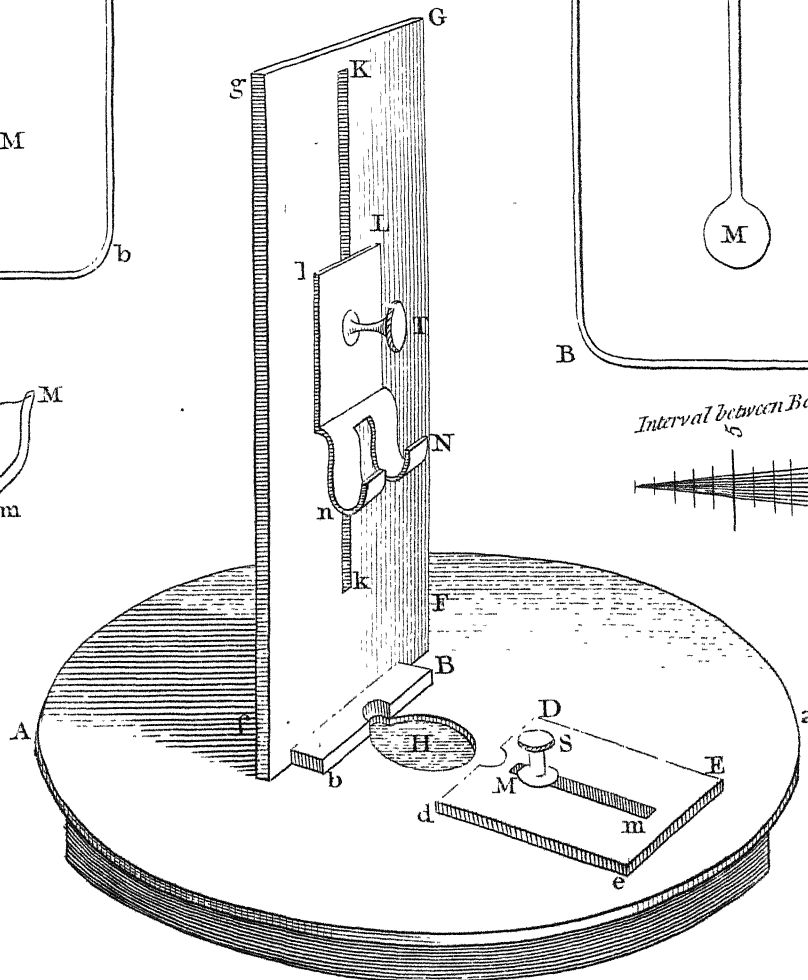
*Fig. 2.*



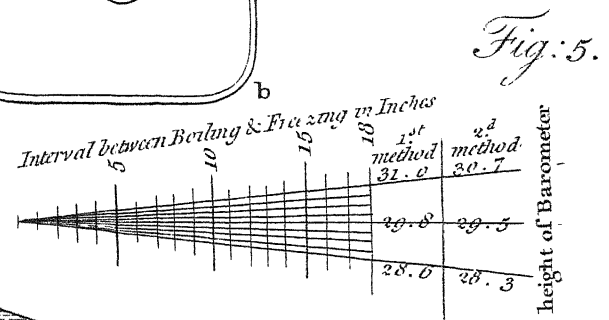
*Fig. 4.*



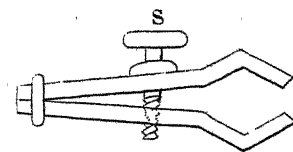
*Fig. 3.*



*Fig. 6.*



*Fig. 5.*



*Fig. 7.*



to those pencils, will be collected into one point upon the retina of the eye; and consequently, the two opposite limbs of the two images of the Sun will seem to coincide, and the two images of the Sun to touch one another externally. But if the state of the eye should alter, the place of the eye-glass remaining the same, the eye will be no longer disposed to see the image formed at the point  $a$  distinctly, but to see an object placed at  $ef$ , nearer to or farther from the object-glass distinctly; and therefore an image will be formed on the retina exactly similar to the somewhat confused image formed by the rays on a plane perpendicular to their course at  $ef$ . Consequently, as the two cones of solar rays,  $boa$ ,  $cva$ , formed by the two semi-circles, are separated or encroach upon one another at this point of the axis by the distance  $ef$ , the two images of the Sun will not seem to touch one another externally, but to separate or to encroach upon one another by the interval  $ef$ . The error hereby introduced into the measure of the Sun's diameter will be the angle  $erf$ , subtended by  $ef$  at  $r$  the middle point between  $o$  and  $v$ , which is to  $ear$  or  $oar$ , the Sun's apparent diameter, as  $ae$  to  $cr$ , or even to  $ar$ , on account of the smallness of  $ae$  with respect to  $ar$ .

These considerations concerning the cause of a principal error that has been found in the object-glass micro-

meter led me to inquire, whether some method might not be found of producing two distinct representations of the Sun, or any other object, which should have the axes of the pencils of rays, by which they are formed, diverging from one and the same point, or nearly so: and it occurred to me, that this might be done by the refraction of a prism placed to receive part of the rays proceeding from the object, either before or after their refraction through the object-glass of a telescope. If the prism be placed without the object-glass, the rays that are refracted through it will make an angle with the rays that pass beside it equal to the refraction of the prism; and this angle will not be altered by the refraction of the object-glass afterwards. Consequently, two images of an object will be represented, and the prism so applied will enable us to measure the apparent diameter of any object, or any other angular distance which is equal to the refraction of the prism. But if the prism be placed within the object-glass, that is to say, between the object-glass and eye-glass, the angle measured by the instrument will vary according to the distance of the prism from the focus of the object-glass, bearing the same ratio to the refraction of the prism, as the distance of the prism from the focus bears to the focal length of the object-glass.

Let

Let ACB (fig. 2.) represent the object-glass, and  $d$  the eye-glass of a telescope, and PR a prism placed to intercept part of the rays coming from an object, suppose the Sun, before they fall on the object-glass. The rays EE proceeding from the Eastern limb of the Sun, and refracted through the object-glass ACB without passing through the prism, will form the corresponding point of the Sun's image at  $e$ ; and the rays ww proceeding in like manner from the Western limb of the Sun will be refracted to form the correspondent point of the Sun's image at  $w$ . But the rays 2E, 2E, 2W, 2W, proceeding in like manner from the Eastern and Western limbs of the Sun, and falling on the prism PR, and thence refracted to the object-glass ACB, will, after refraction through it, form the correspondent points of the Sun's image at  $2e$ ,  $2w$ . Let the refraction of the prism be equal to the Sun's apparent diameter: in this case, at whatever distance the prism be placed beyond the object-glass, the two images of the Sun  $w e$ ,  $2w 2e$ , will touch one another externally at the point  $e 2w$ ; for the rays 2w, 2w, proceeding from the Western limb of the Sun being inclined to the rays EE proceeding from the Eastern limb in the angle of the Sun's apparent diameter, will, after suffering a refraction in passing through the prism equal to the Sun's apparent diameter, emerge



from the prism and fall upon the object-glass parallel to the rays  $EE$ , and consequently will have their focus  $2w$  coincident with the focus  $e$  of the rays  $EE$ , and therefore the two images of the Sun  $we$ ,  $2w2e$ , will touch one another externally at the point  $e2w$ , and the instrument will measure the angle  $EC2w$ , and that only.

But if the prism be placed within the telescope, the angle measured by the instrument will be to the refraction of the prism as the distance of the prism from the focus of the object-glass is to the focal distance of the object-glass: or if two prisms be used to form the two images, with their refracting angles placed contrary ways, as represented in fig. 3. and 4. the angle measured will be to the sum of the refractions of the prisms as the distance of the prisms from the focus of the object-glass is to the focal distance of the object-glass. For let  $ACB$  (fig. 3.) represent the object-glass, and  $d$  the eye-glass of a telescope, and  $PR$ ,  $RS$ , two prisms interposed between them, with their refracting angles turned contrary ways, and the common sections of their refracting planes touching one another at  $R$ . The rays proceeding from an object, suppose the Sun, will be disposed, by the refraction of the object-glass, to form an image of the Sun at the focus; but part of them falling on one prism, and part on the other, will be thereby refracted contrary ways, so as to form two equal images  $we$ ,  $2w2e$ , which,  
if

if the refractions of the prisms be of proper quantities, will touch one another externally at the point  $e2w$ . Let  $ECN$  be the axis of the pencil of rays  $EE$  proceeding from the Sun's Eastern limb; and  $wco$  the axis of the pencil of rays  $ww$  proceeding from the Sun's Western limb; and the point  $N$  the place where the image of the Sun's Eastern limb would be formed, and the point  $o$  where that of the Western limb would be formed, were not the rays diverted from their course by the refractions of the prisms. But by this means part of the rays  $EE$ , which were proceeding to  $N$ , falling on the prism  $PR$ , will be refracted to form an image of the Sun's Eastern limb at  $e$ , while others of the rays  $EE$ , which fall on the prism  $RS$ , will be refracted to form an image of the Sun's Eastern limb at  $2e$ . In like manner, part of the rays  $ww$ , which were proceeding to form an image of the Sun's Western limb at  $o$ , falling on the prism  $RS$ , will be refracted to form an image of the Sun's Western limb at  $2w$  coincident with  $e$ , the point of the image correspondent to the Sun's Eastern limb; while others of the rays  $ww$ , which fall on the prism  $PR$ , will be refracted to form the image of the Sun's Western limb at  $w$ . The two images  $w e$ ,  $2w 2e$ , are supposed to touch one another externally at the point  $e2w$ . The ray  $EPR$ , which belongs to the axis  $ECN$ , and is refracted by the prism  $PR$  to  $e$ , undergoes the refraction  $NR e$ , which (be-

cause

cause small angles are proportional to their sines, and the sine of  $NRe$  is equal to the sine of its supplement  $NRC$  is to  $NCR$  as  $NC$  or  $ce$  is to  $NR$  or  $Re$ . In like manner, the ray  $WGR$ , which belongs to the axis  $wco$ , and is refracted by the prism  $RS$  to  $2w$  or  $e$ , undergoes the refraction  $ORe$ , which is to  $oce$  as  $oc$  or  $ce$  is to  $RO$  or  $Re$ ; therefore, by composition,  $ORN$  the sum of the refractions  $ORe$ ,  $NRe$ , is to  $ocN$  the sum of the angles  $oce$ ,  $Nce$ , or the Sun's apparent diameter, as  $ce$  to  $Re$ ; that is, as the focal distance of the object-glass to the distance of the prisms from the focus of the object-glass.

Or let the prisms  $PR$ ,  $RS$ , be placed with their refracting angles  $P$ ,  $S$ , turned from one another as in fig. 4.: the refraction of the prism  $PR$  will transfer the image of the Sun from  $ON$  to  $we$ , and the refraction of the prism  $RS$  will transfer the image  $ON$  to  $2w2e$ , the two images  $2w2e$ ,  $we$ , touching one another externally at the point  $2ew$ . Let  $ECN$ ,  $wco$ , be the axes of the pencils of rays proceeding from the two extreme limbs of the Sun, and  $N$ ,  $O$ , the points where the images of the Sun's Eastern and Western limbs would be formed by the object-glass, were it not for the refraction of the prisms; the ray  $EFR$ , which belongs to the axis  $ECN$ , and is refracted by the prism  $RS$  to  $2e$ , undergoes the refraction  $NR2e$ ; and the ray  $WGR$ , which belongs to the axis  $wco$ , and is refracted

by

By the prism PR to  $w$ , undergoes the refraction  $ORw$ . Now  $NC2e$ , part of the angle measured, is to  $NR2e$ , the refraction of the prism RS, as  $Rw$  to  $cw$ ; and  $OCw$ , the other part of the angle measured, is to  $ORw$ , the refraction of the prism PR, in the same ratio of  $Rw$  to  $cw$ : therefore  $OCN$ , the whole angle measured, is to  $ORN$ , the sum of the refractions of the two prisms, as  $Rw$  to  $cw$ ; that is, as the distance of the prisms from the focus of the object-glass to the focal distance of the object-glass.

When the prisms are placed in the manner represented in fig. 3. the point  $e$  of the image  $w e$  is illuminated only by the rays which fall on the object-glass between A and F, and the point  $2w$  only by the rays which fall on the object-glass between B and G. Now the angles  $CRF$ ,  $CRG$ , equal to the refractions of the prisms, being constant, the spaces FC, CG, will increase in proportion as the distances RF, RG, increase, and the spaces AF, GB, diminish as much; and therefore, the images at the point of mutual contact  $e2w$  will be each illuminated by half the rays which fall on the object-glass when the prisms are placed close to the object-glass; but will be enlightened less and less the nearer the prisms are brought to the focus of the object-glass.

But

But when the prisms are placed in the manner shewn in fig. 4. the images at the point of contact, as the prisms are removed from the object-glass towards the eye-glass, will be enlightened with more than half the rays that fall on the object-glass, and will be most enlightened when the prisms are brought to the focus itself; for the point  $ze$  of the image  $zwze$  will be enlightened by all the rays  $EE$  that fall on the object-glass between  $B$  and  $F$ , and the point  $w$  of the image  $wz$  will be enlightened by all the rays  $ww$  which fall on the object-glass between  $A$  and  $G$ . But the difference of the illuminations is not very considerable in achromatic telescopes, on account of the great aperture of the object-glass; as the greatest space  $FG$  is to the focal distance of the object-glass, as the sum of the fines of the refractions of the prisms is to the radius.

There is a third way, and perhaps the best, of placing the prisms, so as to touch one another along their sides which are at right angles to the common sections of their refracting planes. In this disposition of the prisms, the images will be equally enlightened, namely, each with half the rays which fall on the object-glass, wherever the prisms be placed between the object-glass and eye-glass.

From

From what has been shewn it appears, that this instrument, which may be properly called the prismatic micrometer, will measure any angle that does not exceed the sum of the refractions of the prisms, excepting only very small angles, which cannot be taken with it on account of the vanishing of the pencils of rays at the juncture of the two prisms near the focus of the object-glass; that it will afford a very large scale, namely, the whole focal length of the object-glass for the greatest angle measured by it; and that it will never be out of adjustment; as the point of the scale where the measurement begins (or the point of 0) answers to the focus of the object-glass, which is a fixed point for celestial objects, and a point very easily found for terrestrial objects. All that will be necessary to be done, in order to find the value of the scale of this micrometer, will be to measure accurately the distance of the prisms from the focus when the instrument is set to measure the apparent diameter of any object subtending a known angle at the centre of the object-glass, which may be easily found by experiment, as by measuring a base and the diameter of the object observed placed at the end of it, in the manner practiced with other micrometers: for the angle subtended by this object will be to the angle subtended by a celestial object, or very remote land object, when the

distance of the prisms from the principal focus is the same as it was found from the actual focus in the terrestrial experiment, as the principal focal distance of the object-glass is to the actual focal distance in the said experiment.

It will, I apprehend, be the best way in practice, instead of one prism to use two prisms, refracting contrary ways, and so divide the refraction between them (as represented in fig. 3. and 4.). Achromatic prisms, each composed of two prisms of flint and crown-glass, placed with their refracting angles contrary ways, will undoubtedly be necessary for measuring angles with great precision by this instrument: and I can add with pleasure, that I find by experiment made with this instrument, as it was executed by Mr. DOLLOND with achromatic prisms, ground with great care for this trial above a twelve-month ago, that the images after refraction through the prisms appear very distinct; and that observations of the apparent diameters of objects may be taken in the manner here proposed with ease and precision.

Two or more sets of prisms may be adapted to the same telescope, to be used each in their turn, for the more commodious measurement of different angles. Thus it may be very convenient to use one set of prisms for mea-

furing angles not exceeding  $36'$ , and consequently fit for measuring the diameters of the Sun and Moon, and the lucid parts and distances of the cusps in their eclipses; and another set of prisms to measure angles not much exceeding one minute, and consequently fit for measuring the diameters of all the other planets. This latter set of prisms will be the more convenient for measuring small angles, on account of a small imperfection attending the use of this micrometer, as before mentioned; namely, that angles cannot be measured with it when the prisms approach very near the focus of the object-glass, the pencils of rays being there lost at the point where the prisms touch one another.

Upon the principles that have been here explained, a prism placed within the telescope of an astronomical instrument, adjusted by a plumb-line or level, to receive all the rays that pass through the object-glass, may conveniently serve the purpose of a micrometer, and supersede the use both of the vernier scale and the external micrometer; and the instrument may then be always set to some even division before the observation. Thus the use of a telescopic level may be extended to measure with great accuracy the horizontal refractions, the depression of the horizon of the sea, and small altitudes and depressions of land objects. Time and experience



will doubtless suggest many other useful applications of this instrument.

A paper from the learned Abbé BOSCOVICH was read before this Society the ninth of last June, describing a similar contrivance as an invention of the Abbé ROCHON, in which the Abbé BOSCOVICH himself also claims some share; I therefore desire to acquaint this Society, that I communicated this invention to Mr. DOLLOND, and had it executed by him; and also shewed the instrument itself, so executed, to my esteemed friend ALEXANDER AUBERT, esq. fellow of this Society, a gentleman very well qualified to judge of things of this nature, above a twelve-month before the communication of the Abbé BOSCOVICH's paper, as will appear from their written attestations, drawn up at my desire, describing the particulars of the communication of this invention which I made to them so long ago. May I be permitted to remark, that this instrument having been executed by my directions, in several forms, by Mr. DOLLOND, between the months of March and August, 1776, and set up and tried at his house in the presence of several of his workmen, could not be considered as an absolute secret concealed from the public. However, I doubt not that the following attestations of Mr. AUBERT and Mr. DOLLOND will sufficiently prove my title to this invention of the prismatic micro-

6. meter;

meter; and I take this opportunity of exhibiting to the Society the instrument itself, mentioned in Mr. DOLLOND's letter as executed by himself according to my directions, and sent to the Royal Observatory in the month of August 1776.

Greenwich,  
December 11, 1777.

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TO THE REV. DR. MASKELYNE.

REV. SIR,

St. Paul's Church-yard,  
Nov. 22, 1777.

ACCORDING to your desire I send the following particulars of the experiments which were made by your directions, for completing a new kind of micrometer for measuring small angles. About the beginning of April 1776, I received your first directions respecting this matter, which were to make two prismatic glasses or wedges of such angles that rays of light, which passed through them, should be refracted about  $18'$  of a degree: these were to be placed between the object-glass and eye-glass of an achromatic telescope about 30 inches long. The angular edges of the two prismatic glasses were to be placed in contact with each other; they were to be moved in a parallel position from the object-glass to the focus

focus of the eye-glass, and to be of such a size as to cover the aperture of the object-glass when brought close to it. By the refraction of these wedges two images were formed in the telescope, which were at the greatest distance (about 36') when the wedges were close to the object-glass, and approached as they were moved towards its focus, where they united; so that the whole focal distance of the object-glass was to be the length of the scale for measuring the angular distance of the two images formed in the telescope. When these wedges were applied, as above described, the two images were found to be coloured to a great degree, occasioned by the refraction of the wedges. This defect you directed me to remove by making the prismatic glasses or wedges achromatic, on the same principles as the achromatic object-glasses; and, after some difficulties, this was effected; the two images formed in the telescope appeared free from colours and distinct. The above experiments were made in a rough wooden tube, with an inconvenient method of moving the wedges by hand: in this state it was when shewn to ALEXANDER AUBERT, esq. F. R. S. towards the end of May, 1776; after which you desired to have it done in a more compleat manner, in a brass tube, with a means of turning the tube round to take angles in different directions, and a method of  
moving

moving the wedges with a screw. This was compleated about the middle of August in the same year, and then sent to the Royal Observatory. I have the honour to be,

REVEREND SIR,

Your obedient humble servant,

PETER DOLLOND.

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I HEREBY certify, that in the month of May, 1776, the Rev. Mr. MASKELYNE, Astronomer-royal, produced to me, at Mr. DOLLOND's house in St. Paul's church-yard, and in his presence, as a new invention of his own, an instrument for measuring small angles, consisting of two achromatic prisms or wedges applied between the object-glass and eye-glass of an achromatic telescope about 30 inches long, by moving of which wedges nearer to, or farther from, the object-glass, the two images of an object produced by them appeared to approach to, or recede from, each other, so that the focal length of the object-glass became a scale for measuring the angular distance of the two images.

London,  
Nov. 27, 1777.

ALEX<sup>R</sup>. AUBERT.

XXXVII. *The Report of the Committee appointed by the Royal Society to consider of the best Method of adjusting the fixed Points of Thermometers; and of the precautions necessary to be used in making Experiments with those Instruments.*

Read June 19, and Dec. 28, 1777.

**I**T is universally agreed by all those who make and use FAHRENHEIT's thermometers, that the freezing point, or that point which the thermometer stands at when surrounded by ice or snow beginning to melt, is to be called  $32^{\circ}$ ; and that the heat of boiling water is to be called  $212^{\circ}$ : but for want of further regulations concerning the manner in which this last point is to be adjusted, it is placed not less than two or three degrees higher on some thermometers, even of those made by our best artists, than on others. The two principal causes of this difference are, first, that it has never been settled at what height of the barometer this point is to be adjusted<sup>(a)</sup>; and

(a) FAHRENHEIT found that the heat of boiling water differed according to the height of the barometer; but supposed the difference to be much greater than

and secondly, that so much of the quicksilver in the thermometer as is contained in the tube, is more heated in the method used by some persons, than in that used by others. To shew that this last circumstance ought by no means to be disregarded, suppose that the ball of a thermometer be dipped into boiling water as far as to the freezing point, and consequently that the length of the column of quicksilver in that part of the tube which is not immersed in the water be  $180^{\circ}$ ; and suppose that the heat of that part of the column of quicksilver be no more than  $112^{\circ}$ . If the thermometer be now intirely immersed in the water, the heat of this column will be increased  $100^{\circ}$ ; and consequently its length will be increased by  $\frac{100}{11500}$  parts of the whole, as quicksilver expands  $\frac{1}{11500}$  part of its bulk by each degree of heat; and consequently the thermometer will stand  $\frac{180 \times 100}{11500}$  or rather more than  $1^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  higher than it did before.

Another thing to be considered in adjusting the boiling point is, that if the ball be immersed deep in the water, it will be furrounded by water which will be com-

than it really is. Mr. DE LUC has since, by a great number of experiments made at very different heights above the level of the sea, found a rule by which the difference in the boiling point, answering to different heights of the barometer, is determined with great exactness. According to this rule the alteration of the boiling point by the variation of the barometer from  $29\frac{1}{2}$  to  $30\frac{1}{2}$  inches is  $1^{\circ}.59$  of FAHRENHEIT.

pressed by more than the weight of the atmosphere, and on that account will be rather hotter than it ought to be.

We are of opinion, that the quicksilver in the tube ought, if possible, to be kept of the same heat as that in the ball, and that the ball ought not to be immersed deep in the water. These two requisites may be obtained by using a vessel covered so as to allow no more passage than what is sufficient for carrying off the steam; for then, if the thermometer be inclosed in this vessel in such manner that the boiling point shall rise but a little way above the cover, almost all the quicksilver in the tube will be surrounded by the steam of the boiling water, and consequently will be nearly of the same heat as the water itself: we therefore made some experiments to determine how regular the boiling point would be when tried in such vessels, both when the ball was immersed in the water, and when it was exposed only to the steam as recommended by Mr. CAVENDISH <sup>(b)</sup>

The vessel used in these experiments is represented in fig. 1. *ABba* is the pot containing the boiling water; *dd* is the cover; *E* is a chimney for carrying off the steam; *mm* is the thermometer fastened to a brass frame; this thermometer is passed through a hole *ff* in the cover, and rests thereon by a circular brass plate *gg* fastened

(b) Phil. Transf. vol. LXVI. p. 380.

to its frame, a piece of woollen cloth being placed between *gg* and the cover, the better to prevent the escape of the vapours.

There were two pots of this kind used by us; one five inches in diameter and nine deep; the other,  $4\frac{1}{4}$  in diameter and 23 deep. Two of the thermometers principally used were the short ones, the brass plate (*gg*) being placed only  $3\frac{3}{4}$  inches above the top of the ball, and the boiling point rising not much above that plate: the third thermometer was much longer, the plate (*gg*) being 17 inches above the ball. They were all three quick; the first containing only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  degrees to an inch; the second  $5^{\circ}$ ; and the third  $10^{\circ}$ . The first had a cylinder instead of a ball  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch long and  $\frac{4}{16}$  in diameter<sup>(c)</sup>; the two others had spherical balls, about  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch in diameter.

On trying these thermometers in the above mentioned vessels, with the water rising two or three inches above the top of the ball, we found some variations in the height according to the different manner of making the experiment, but not very considerable; for the most part there was very little difference whether the water boiled

(c) In the two short thermometers the quicksilver would have descended into the ball when cold, had not the tube been swelled a little, close to the ball, in order to prevent it.



fast or very gently; and what difference there was, was not always the same way, as the thermometer sometimes stood higher when the water boiled fast, and sometimes lower. The difference, however, seldom amounted to more than  $\frac{1}{10}$ th of a degree, unless a considerable part of the sides of the pot were exposed to the fire; but in some trials which we made with the short thermometers in the short pot, with near four inches of the side of the vessel exposed to the fire<sup>(d)</sup>, they constantly stood lower when the water boiled fast than when slow, and the height was in general greater than when only the bottom of the pot was exposed to the fire. This difference however was not perceived in the trials of the long thermometer in the deep pot, as there seemed very little difference in the height whether the water boiled fast or slow, or whether more or less of the side of the pot was exposed to the fire. The greatest difference observed in the same thermometer, on the same day and in the same water, according to the different manner of trying the experiment, was half a degree.

(d) In all our experiments, the water was boiled over a portable black-lead furnace, covered with an iron plate, which had a hole cut in it just big enough to receive the bottom of the pot; so that, by passing the bottom through this hole to a greater or less depth, we could expose more or less of the sides to the fire. In the other experiments, not more than one inch of the sides was ever exposed to the fire.

We made some trials with the long thermometer in the deep pot, to determine how much the height of the boiling point was affected by a greater or less depth of water above the ball. By a mean of the experiments it stood ,66 of a degree higher when the water rose 15 inches above the ball, than when it was only three inches above the ball; so that increasing the depth of water above the ball by 11 inches, raised the thermometer ,66 of a degree, that is ,06 for each inch.

We would by no means infer however from hence, that it is a constant rule, that the height of the boiling point is increased ,06 of a degree by the addition of each inch in the depth of the water above the ball; as perhaps the proportion would be found very different in greater depths of water or in wider vessels.

If this rule is constant, it would shew that, when the pressure on that part of the water which surrounds the ball is increased by increasing the depth of water above the ball, the height of the boiling point is not altered thereby more than half as much as by an equal increase of pressure produced by an alteration in the weight of the atmosphere: for the pressure on that part of the water which surrounds the ball is as much increased by an alteration of 11 inches in the depth of the water above the ball, as by an increase of  $\frac{11}{13\frac{1}{2}}$  of an inch in the height

of

of the barometer; and such an alteration in the height of the barometer is sufficient to raise the boiling point  $1^{\circ},3$ .

It seems as if the height of the boiling point was in some measure increased by having a great depth of water below the ball, as in general the short thermometers stood higher when tried in the deep pot than in the short one; this effect, however, did not always take place. In the former of these cases, the depth of water below the ball was about 18 inches, in the other only 4; but the depth of water above the ball was the same in both cases.

It must be observed, that when there was a great depth of water in the vessel, either above or below the ball, the experiments were much more irregular, and the quicksilver in the tube remained much less steady than when it was small. When the depth of water in the vessel is great, it is apt to boil in gusts, which seems to be the cause of this irregularity; though we could not perceive any regular connection between these gusts and the rising of the thermometer.

In the experiments made with the water not rising so high as the ball, so that the thermometer was exposed only to the steam, we very seldom found any sensible difference whether the water boiled fast or slow: but  
whenever

whenever there was any, the greater height was when the water boiled fast; the difference, however, never amounted to more than  $\frac{1}{20}$ th of a degree.

There was scarce ever any sensible difference whether the short thermometers were tried in the short pot or the deep one, though in the former case the ball was raised very little above the surface of the water, and in the latter not less than 14 inches: neither did we find any sensible difference in trying them in the tall pot, whether there was a greater or less depth of water in the vessel.

As it was nevertheless suspected, that the heat of the steam might possibly be less near the top of the pot than lower down (for in these experiments the ball of the thermometer was always at the same depth below the cover, though its height above the surface of the water was very different) we made two holes in the side of a pot four inches deeper than the deepest of the foregoing, one near the top of the pot, and the other not far from the bottom, and passed the ball of the thermometer through one or the other of these holes, taking care to stop up both holes very carefully, so that no air could enter into the pot by them: no sensible difference could be perceived in the height, whether the thermometer was placed in the upper or lower hole, though in one

case the ball was only three inches, and in the other 21 inches, below the cover.

The heat of the steam therefore appears to be not sensibly different in different parts of the same pot; neither does there appear to be any sensible difference in its heat, whether the water boil fast or slow; whether there be a greater or less depth of water in the pot; or whether there be a greater or less distance between the surface of the water and the top of the pot; so that the height of a thermometer tried in steam, in vessels properly closed, seems to be scarce sensibly affected by the different manner of trying the experiment.

Though, as was before said, there was scarce any difference in the height of the quicksilver, whether the water boiled fast or slow, yet, when the water boiled slow, the thermometer was a great while before it rose to its proper height; and when it boiled very slow, it seemed doubtful whether it would have ever risen to it, especially if the ball was raised a great way above the surface of the water: but when, by making the water boil briskly, the thermometer had once risen to its proper height, the water might then be suffered to boil very gently, even for a great length of time, without the thermometer sinking sensibly lower<sup>(e)</sup>.

All

(e) The reason of this seems to be that, while any air is left in the pot, the steam

All three thermometers were found to stand, in general, from 30 to 65 hundredths of a degree higher when the ball was immersed a little way in the water (neglecting those observations in which much of the sides of the pot were exposed to the fire) than when it was tried in steam: at a medium they stood  $\frac{48}{100}$  higher, which is equal to the difference produced by a variation of  $\frac{3}{10}$ ths of an inch in the barometer; so that the boiling point, adjusted at a given height of the barometer, with the ball immersed a little way in the water, will in general agree with that adjusted in steam, when the barometer is  $\frac{3}{10}$ ths of an inch higher.

It must be observed, that in all these experiments a piece of flat tin plate was laid loosely on the mouth of the chimney E, so as to leave no more passage for the steam than what was sufficient to prevent the tin plate from being lifted up. In trying the thermometers in steam, this is by no means unnecessary; for, if the cover of the pot does not fit pretty close, the thermometers will immediately sink several degrees on removing the tin plate; but, when their balls are immersed in the water, the removal of the tin plate has no sensible effect.

steam cannot acquire its full degree of heat; and that when the water boils very gently, the air is not easily intirely expelled from the pot. That the steam will not acquire its full degree of heat while any air is left in the pot will appear from the next paragraph but one.

If this cover to the chimney had been heavy, the included steam might have been so much compressed thereby, that the water and steam might have acquired a considerably greater heat than they ought to have done; but as this plate lay loose on the chimney, and as its weight was not greater than that of a column of quicksilver, whose base is equal to that of the mouth of the chimney, and whose altitude is  $\frac{1}{50}$ th of an inch, the excess of the compression of the included steam above that which it would suffer in an open vessel, could not be greater than that which would be caused by an increase of  $\frac{1}{50}$ th of an inch in the height of the barometer, which is too small to be worth taking notice of; for, if the excess of compression was greater than that, the tin plate must necessarily be lifted up so much as to afford a sufficient passage for the steam to escape fast enough, though urged by no greater force than that.

Though in the different trials of the same thermometer in steam, on the same day, and with the same water, so little difference was observed, according to the different manner of trying the experiment; yet there was a very sensible difference between the trials made on different days, even when reduced to the same height of the barometer, though the observations were always made either with rain or distilled water. The difference,

however, never amounted to more than a quarter of a degree, except in one thermometer, in which there were three observations out of eighteen which differed more than that; one of them differed so much as  $0.65^{\circ}$  from some of the rest. In the observations made with the ball immersed a little way in the water, there was a greater difference between the observations of different days, even neglecting those in which much of the sides of the pot were exposed to the fire. In two of the thermometers the different observations differed about  $\frac{3.5}{100}$  of a degree from each other; but in the other thermometer they varied  $\frac{8}{100}$ ths.

We do not at all know what this difference could be owing to, especially in the observations in steam. It could not proceed intirely from some unknown difference in the water; for, if it did, the difference between the different thermometers should have been always the same, which was not the case, though in general, on those days in which one thermometer stood high, the others did also, especially in the trials in steam. Moreover, as far as can be perceived from our experiments, there seems to be very little difference between different waters with respect to the heat which they acquire in boiling. We could not be sure that there was any difference between rain or distilled water and pump water, provided



the latter had boiled long: neither did any difference seem to arise from the water containing such substances as are disposed to part readily with their phlogiston; for, on trying the thermometers in the steam of distilled water, their height was not sensibly altered by pouring in a small quantity of a solution of liver of sulphur, or of iron filings imperfectly rusted. The thermometer, however, seemed to stand sensibly lower in pump water beginning to boil, than in the same water long boiled, but the difference scarcely exceeded  $\frac{1}{10}$ th or  $\frac{1}{5}$ th of a degree.

We made some experiments to determine the heat of water boiling in open vessels. In general, when the vessel was almost full, and the water boiled fast, and the ball of the thermometer was held from three-quarters to two or three inches under water, and also in that part of the vessel where the current of water ascended upwards, that is, in the hottest part of the water, its heat was not much different from that of the steam of water boiling in closed vessels, varying only from a quarter of a degree more than that, to as much less; but if the water boiled gently, its heat would frequently be half or three-quarters of a degree cooler than the steam. If the experiment was tried in the deep pot with such a quantity of water in it that the surface was at least 14 or 15 inches below the top of the pot, so that though the vessel was  
open,

open, yet the water was not much exposed to the air, its heat then seemed scarcely less than when boiled in closed vessels.

In making these experiments we chiefly made use of the two short thermometers, in which, as the quantity of quicksilver contained in the tube was small, the error arising from that part of the quicksilver being not heated equally with that in the ball, could be but small: for example, in the second of the short thermometers, the number of degrees contained in that part of the tube between the circular plate *g g* and the ball was  $18^{\circ}$ . In the experiments in steam this part of the tube was heated to the same degree as the ball. Suppose now, that in open vessels it was heated only to  $122^{\circ}$ , or was  $90^{\circ}$  cooler than the ball, it is plain, that the thermometer would stand only  $\frac{18 \times 90}{11500}$ , or  $\frac{1}{7}$ th of a degree lower than it did in steam, provided the heat of the quicksilver in the ball was the same in both cases. In the other short thermometer, as there were only half as many degrees to an inch, the error was only half as great.

In several of the experiments, however, we made use of the long thermometer; but then it was necessary to make an allowance on account of the quicksilver in the tube being not heated equally with that in the ball. The better

better to enable us to do this, we made use of a thermometer tube, filled with quicksilver in the same manner as a thermometer, only without any ball to it, or a thermometer without a ball, as we may call it. A small brass plate was fixed to the tube near the top of the column of quicksilver, to shew the heat as in a common thermometer. In all our experiments with the long thermometer in open vessels, this tube without a ball, was placed by its side; whence, as the quicksilver in the tube of the long thermometer could hardly fail of being nearly of the same heat as that in the tube without a ball, we knew pretty nearly the heat of the quicksilver in the tube of the former, and consequently how much higher it would have stood if the quicksilver in its tube had been of the same heat as that in the ball. For example, on October 19, the long thermometer tried in an open vessel, the water boiling fast, stood  $1^{\circ}.65$  lower than it did when tried in steam the same day, the quicksilver in the tube without a ball standing at the same time at  $109^{\circ}$ : we may therefore conclude, that the heat of the quicksilver, in that part of the tube of the long thermometer which was not immersed in the water, was also  $109^{\circ}$ ; and consequently, as that part of the tube contained about  $170^{\circ}$ , the thermometer stood  $\frac{170 \times 103}{11500}$ , or

1°.52 lower than it would have done if the quicksilver in the tube had been of the same heat as that in the ball; and, consequently, the quicksilver in the ball of the thermometer was in reality .07 cooler than when tried in steam.

We examined the boiling points of several thermometers, made by different artists, by trying them in steam when the barometer was at 30.1, and finding what division on the scale the quicksilver stood at. The difference of the extremes was  $3^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$ ; but, by a mean of all, it was found to stand at 213°.1, and consequently would have stood at 212°, if the barometer had been at 29.4; so that if the boiling point was to be adjusted, either in steam, when the barometer is at 29.4, or with the ball immersed two or three inches in water, when the barometer is at 29.1, it would agree best with the mean of the abovementioned thermometers. But as it seems to be of no great signification to make the boiling point agree very nearly with the mean of the thermometers made at present, when the extremes differ so widely; and as we apprehend that it will be more convenient to the makers that some height should be chosen which differs less from the mean, as thereby they will more frequently have an opportunity of adjusting the boiling point without the trouble and danger of mistakes which attend the  
making

making a correction, we recommend, that the boiling point should be adjusted when the barometer is at 29.8, if the person chooses to do it in steam; or when the barometer is at  $29\frac{1}{2}$ , if he chooses to do it in close vessels, with the ball immersed to a small depth under the water. Our reason for pitching upon this precise height is, that thereby the boiling point will differ from Mr. DE LUC's boiling point, by a simple fraction of the degrees of his common scale, namely three-quarters of a degree higher.

We are informed by Mr. DE LUC, that the method he used in adjusting the boiling point, though he forgot to mention it in the *Récherches sur les Modifications de l'Atmosphère*, was to wrap rags round the tube of the thermometer, and to try it with the ball immersed in water in an open vessel, of the form described in the abovementioned book, while boiling water was poured at different times on the rags, in order that the quicksilver in the tube might be heated, if possible, to the same degree as that in the ball. As well as we can judge from the abovementioned experiments in open vessels, and from the few trials we have made of this method, we are inclined to think, that the boiling point adjusted this way will in general differ but little from that adjusted in steam at the same height of the barometer, especially if the thermometer be not very long, and do not extend a great way

way below the freezing point<sup>(f)</sup>; consequently, as Mr. DE LUC's boiling point was adjusted when the barometer was at 27 Paris or 28.75 English inches, it will stand lower than that adjusted in the manner recommended by us, by three-quarters of a degree of his scale; or  $80\frac{3}{4}$  on DE LUC's thermometer, will answer to  $212^{\circ}$  on FAHRENHEIT's adjusted in the manner proposed.

Though the boiling point be placed so much higher on some of the thermometers now made than on others, yet we would not have the reader think that this can make any considerable error in the observations of the weather, at least in this climate; for an error of  $1^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$  in the position of the boiling point will make an error of only half a degree in the position of  $92^{\circ}$ , and of not more than a quarter of a degree in the point of  $62^{\circ}$ . It is only in nice experiments, or in trying the heat of hot liquors, that this error in the boiling point can be of much signification.

(f) In order to see how much the quicksilver in the tube of the thermometer would be heated in this method of adjusting the boiling point, we took the abovementioned tube without a ball, wrapped it round with rags, and poured boiling water on it as above described: the heat of the quicksilver therein was found to be about  $21^{\circ}$  less than that of boiling water; and, therefore, the boiling point of a thermometer, adjusted in this manner, supposing the thermometer to be dipped into the water as far as to the point of  $32^{\circ}$ , should stand about one-third of a degree lower than it would do if the quicksilver in the tube was heated equally with that in the ball.

There is another circumstance that we have not yet taken notice of, which, in strictness, causes some error in thermometers, namely, the difference of expansion of the glass tube and the scale. But this error is in almost all cases so small as to be not worth regarding; we have, however, in the note below given a rule for computing the value of it <sup>(g)</sup>.

(g) The usual way of adjusting thermometers is, to mark the boiling and freezing points on the glass tube, and not to set off those points on the scale till some time after, when the tube and scale may both be supposed to be nearly of the temper of the air in the room; consequently, when the thermometer is exposed to a greater heat than that, the scale, if of brass, will expand more than the glass tube, and the divisions on it will be longer than they ought to be; but, if the scale be of wood, it will expand less than the glass tube, and the divisions will be too short. Let now the heat of the air, when the divisions were set off on the scale, be called A; let the degree of heat which the thermometer stands at in the experiment be called D; and let the degree answering to that point of the scale in which the thermometer is fastened to the scale be called F. Then, if all parts of the thermometer and scale are heated equally, and the scale is of brass, the thermometer will appear to stand lower than it ought to do by the  $\frac{D-F \times D-A}{165000}$  part of a degree, observing, that if  $D-F \times D-A$

is negative, it will stand higher than it ought to do; but if the scale is of wood, it will stand higher than it ought to do by the  $\frac{D-F \times D-A}{216000}$  part of a degree.

If the thermometer be fastened to the scale by the ball, or any part of the tube lower than the observed heat, the error will be the same, whether that part of the tube and scale, which is above the observed degree, be of the same heat as the ball or not: but if the thermometer is fastened to the scale by the top of the tube, as is frequently done, then the error will vanish whenever that part of the tube and scale, which is above the observed degree, is not much heated. This rule is founded on Mr. SMEATON's experiments, who found, that white glass expands  $\frac{1}{165000}$ th of an inch in a foot by 180° of heat; that brass wire expands  $\frac{1}{216000}$ ; and that wood expands scarce sensibly.

In making experiments with thermometers, it evidently is equally necessary that the quicksilver in the tube should be of the same heat as that in the ball, as it is in adjusting the boiling point: for this reason, in trying the heat of liquors much hotter or colder than the air, the thermometer ought, if possible, to be immersed as far as to the top of the column of quicksilver in the tube. As this, however, would often be very difficult to execute, the observer will frequently be obliged to content himself with immersing it to a much less depth. But then as the quicksilver, in a great part of the tube, will be of a different heat from that in the ball, it will be necessary, where any degree of accuracy is required, to make a correction, on that account, to the heat shewn by the thermometer. If the heat of the quicksilver in the tube be known, the correction may readily be made by help of the annexed table; the only difficulty lies in estimating what that heat may be. In all probability the heat of the quicksilver in the tube will not be very different from that of the air which surrounds it<sup>(b)</sup>; but as  
that

(b) This must evidently be the case, unless the quicksilver in the tube is considerably heated by its contact with that in the ball. To see whether this was the case, some sand was heated in a small copper dish over a lamp to the heat of about  $212^{\circ}$ , and the abovementioned tube, without a ball, laid horizontal with the end extending about half an inch over the sand; but, to prevent its being heated thereby, a piece of wood, about a quarter of an inch thick,



that air will be affected by the steam of the liquor, and the fire by which it is heated, it will commonly be of a very different heat from the rest of the air of the room in which the experiment is made; but as no great nicety is required in estimating the heat of the quicksilver in the tube, inasmuch that a mistake of  $25^{\circ}$  therein will cause an error of only half a degree in the correction, when the number of degrees in that part of the tube which is not immersed in the liquor is not more than  $220^{\circ}$ , it will commonly be not difficult to guess at the heat of the quicksilver in the tube as near as is required<sup>(i)</sup>. But if the observer is desirous of more accuracy,

was laid between the sand and it. After it had remained a sufficient time in this situation, the division which the quicksilver stood at was observed. The piece of wood was then removed, and the end of the tube laid in the sand, which was heaped over it so that about half an inch of the column of quicksilver was intirely surrounded by the hot sand, and must therefore be heated to nearly the same degree as it. The quicksilver in the tube rose very little higher than before, and seemingly not more than might be owing to the expansion of the half inch of quicksilver which was surrounded by the sand; so that it should seem, that heating one end of the column of quicksilver does not communicate much heat to the rest of the column; and consequently, that, when the ball of a thermometer is immersed in hot liquor, the quicksilver in the tube will not be much hotter than the surrounding air.

(i) The better to enable the reader to guess at the heat of the quicksilver in the tube, in cases of this kind, we tried how much the quicksilver in the above-mentioned tube, without a ball, would be heated when held over a vessel of boiling water. It is true, that these experiments cannot be of any great service towards this purpose, as the tubes will be very differently heated, according to  
the

racy, he may find the heat of the surrounding air by holding the ball of a small thermometer near the tube  
of

the degree of heat of the fluid, and the quantity of steam which it furnishes, and according to the nature of the fire by which it is heated; yet as the experiments may perhaps serve in some measure to rectify our ideas on this head, we will give the result. When the abovementioned tube without a ball \*, the length of the column of quicksilver in which was 15 inches, was held perpendicularly over the vessel of boiling water, with its bottom even with the surface of the water, the heat of the quicksilver was in all the trials we made from 68 to 28° hotter than the air of the room. If the tube was held inclined to the horizon, in an angle of about 30°, with the bottom of the column of quicksilver reaching not more than three quarters of an inch within the circumference of the pot, so that the column of quicksilver was as little heated by the steam as could easily be done, it was from 30 to 7° hotter than the air. When a shorter tube of the same kind, in which the column of quicksilver was seven inches, was used, the quicksilver was from 62 to 44° hotter than the air, when held perpendicularly, and from 49 to 36° hotter when held inclined. The water in these trials frequently boiled pretty fast, but never very violently. It was in general heated over a portable black lead furnace placed in the middle of the room; but it was once heated over an ordinary chafing-dish, when the quicksilver in the long tube, held perpendicularly, was found to be 64° hotter than the air. When the experiments were tried without doors, the heat of the quicksilver in the tube would vary very much, according as the wind blew the steam and hot air from or towards the tube, but it sometimes rose as high as it did within doors.

The most convenient method we know of making these tubes without a ball is, to fill a thermometer in the usual manner, and heat the ball till there is a proper quantity of quicksilver in the tube, and then to make the column of quicksilver separate at the neck of the ball, and run to the extremity of the tube, so as to leave a vacuum between the ball and the column of quicksilver, as is expressed in fig. 2. where the shaded part AD represents the column of quicksilver, and BA that part in which there is a vacuum. The tube must then be sealed some-

\* See p. 830. l. 1.

of the thermometer with which he tries the heat of the liquor; or, what will be much better, he may have a tube without a ball, such as is above described, fastened to the frame of the thermometer, on one side of the tube; or if he has two such tubes, of different lengths, it will be still more accurate.

To avoid the inconvenience of this correction, perhaps it may be thought, that both in adjusting the boiling point and in trying the heat of liquors, it would be better that not much more than the ball of the thermometer should be immersed, and that the tube should be held inclined in such manner as to be heated as little as possible; as it may be said, that by this means you will find the heat of liquors pretty nearly, without the trouble of making any correction; and that, though in strictness a correction would be required in observing the heat of the air with

where between B and A as at E, and cut off there; after which it must be held with the end D upwards, so as to make the column of quicksilver run to the extremity E: by this method of filling it is plain, that no sensible quantity of air can be left between E and the column of quicksilver; but yet the quicksilver will be apt not to run sufficiently close to the extremity E, as the weight of the column will be scarcely sufficient to force it into the narrow space which will commonly be left in sealing the tube, especially when held nearly horizontal: for this reason it will be proper to open the tube at D, so as to let in the air, and then seal it again. It must be observed, that the space left between D and the column of quicksilver ought not to be less than the tenth part of the length of the column of quicksilver, as otherwise the included air might be too much compressed by the expansion of the quicksilver when much heated.

such

such thermometers, yet the heat of the atmosphere never differs so much from the mean heat, as to make that correction of much consequence<sup>(k)</sup>. But, on the other hand, this method of making and using thermometers is much less exact than the former, and therefore is unfit for nice experiments; and, besides, a correction would be as necessary with this kind of thermometer in trying the heat of air, artificially heated, or in finding the heat of large quantities of hot liquors, in which it would be difficult to prevent the quicksilver in the tube from being heated

(k) The degrees on all thermometers are intended to answer to equal portions of the solid contents of the tube; and, consequently, if the quicksilver in the tube is kept constantly of the same heat as that in the ball, the degrees will answer to equal increments of bulk of the whole quantity of quicksilver in the thermometer, that is of a given weight of quicksilver. But if only the quicksilver in the ball is heated, and that in the tube is kept always of the same heat, the degrees will answer to equal increments of a given bulk of quicksilver; so that the scale of the thermometers will be really different in these two methods of proceeding, and in high degrees the difference will be very considerable: for example, let two thermometers be made, and in the first of them let care be taken, both in adjusting the fixed points and in trying the heat of liquors, that the quicksilver in the tube shall be of the same heat as that in the ball; and in adjusting the fixed points of the second, and in trying the heat of liquors with it, let care be taken that the quicksilver in the tube shall remain always of the same invariable heat, and let the freezing and boiling points be marked 32 and 212 on both of them: then will the degree of 620 on the first answer to that of 600 on the second; that of 406 to 400; that of 302 to 300; and that of 119.7 to 120; that is, a liquor which appears to be of 620° of heat by the first will appear to be of 600 by the second, &c. It appears from hence, that it would be improper to employ the latter method of adjusting and using thermometers for ordinary purposes, and the former for nice experiments.

by the steam, as it is in finding the heat of liquors with the other thermometer, whenever the ball is not immersed to a sufficient depth; so that, on the whole, the former method of making and using thermometers seems much the best.

A much better way of avoiding the trouble of making a correction would be to have two sets of divisions made to such thermometers as are intended for trying the heat of liquors; one of which should be used when the tube is immersed almost to the top of the column of quicksilver; and the other, when not much more than the ball is immersed, in which last case the observer should be careful that the tube should be as little heated by the steam of the liquor as conveniently can be. It is difficult to give rules for constructing this second set of divisions, as the heat of the quicksilver in the tube will be very different according to the temper of the air in the room, the quantity and nature of the fluid whose heat is to be tried, the manner in which it is heated, and the other circumstances of the experiment; but, on the whole, we think that, given in the following table, would be as proper as any.

Degree answering to that point of the tube which is two inches above the ball.										
	+75	+50	+25	0	-50	-100	-200	-300	-400	-500
-500			*						-500	0
-400									-400	0
-300								-300	-297.4	0
-250							-200.	-248.9	-246.7	0
-200							-149.3	-198.3	-196.5	0
-150							-98.9	-148.	-146.7	0
-100						-100	-49.7	-97.7	-96.6	30
-50					-50	-49.7	-49.	-48.3	-47.6	30
0				0	+0.2	+0.3	+0.6	+0.9	+1.2	35
+150	149.5	149.4	149.	148.7	148.4	147.3				75
+200	198.8	198.5	198.3	198.	197.5	197.				85
+250	247.5	247.1	246.8	246.4	245.7					85
+300	295.8	295.3	294.9	294.4	293.4					85
+350	343.7	343.1	342.5	342.						85
+400	391.1	390.4	389.7	389.1						85
+450	438.1	437.3	436.5	435.7						85
+500	484.7	483.8	482.9	482.						85
+600	576.5	575.4	574.3	573.2						85

To make use of this table, seek in the uppermost horizontal line the degree of the thermometer answering to that point of the tube which is two inches above the ball; and in the left-hand column seek the degrees of the second set of divisions; the corresponding numbers in the table are the corresponding degrees of the first set, or the degrees which they must be set opposite to. The right-hand perpendicular column shews the heat which the quicksilver in the tube was supposed to be of in forming this table.

Though this second set of divisions be far from accurate, yet it is at least as much so as a thermometer adjusted in the latter method can be; so that this double set of divisions possesses all the advantages which can be expected from that method of adjusting thermometers, without the inconveniences.

A table for correcting the observed height of a thermometer, whenever the quicksilver in the tube is not of the same heat as that in the ball.

Diff. of Heat	Degrees not immersed in the liquors.														
	50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600	650	700	7
50	.2	.4	.7	.9	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.7	2.	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.8	3.1	3
100	.4	.9	1.3	1.8	2.2	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.4	4.8	5.2	5.7	6.1	6
150	.7	1.3	2.0	2.6	3.3	3.8	4.6	5.2	5.9	6.5	7.2	7.9	8.4	9.2	9
200	.9	1.8	2.6	3.5	4.4	5.1	6.1	7.0	7.8	8.7	9.6	10	11	12	1
250	1.1	2.2	3.3	4.4	5.5	6.4	7.6	8.7	9.8	11	12	13	14	15	1
300	1.3	2.6	3.8	5.1	6.4	7.7	9.1	10	12	13	14	16	17	18	2
350	1.5	3.0	4.6	6.1	7.6	9.1	11	12	14	15	17	18	20	21	2
400	1.7	3.5	5.2	7.0	8.7	10	12	14	16	17	19	21	23	24	2
450	2.	3.9	5.9	7.8	9.8	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	25	27	2
500	2.2	4.4	6.5	8.7	11	13	15	17	20	22	24	26	28	31	3
550	2.4	4.8	7.2	9.6	12	14	17	19	22	24	26	29	31	34	3

To make use of this table, in the left-hand perpendicular column look for the number of degrees contained in that part of the tube which is not immersed in the fluid whose heat is to be tried, and in the upper horizontal line seek the supposed difference of heat of the quicksilver in that part of the tube from that in the ball; the corresponding number in the table is the correction, which must be added to the observed heat when the



quickfilver in the tube is cooler than that in the ball, and subtracted when it is warmer: for example, let the observed heat of the fluid be  $475^{\circ}$ , let the thermometer be immersed in the fluid as far as to the degree of  $25^{\circ}$ , or to that part of the tube which should be marked  $25^{\circ}$  if the divisions were continued long enough; then is the number of degrees in that part of the tube which is not immersed in the fluid 450; and let the heat of the quickfilver in that part of the tube be supposed  $100^{\circ}$ ; and consequently, the difference of heat of the quickfilver in that part of the tube from that in the ball 375; then in the left-hand perpendicular column seek the number 450, and in the upper horizontal line the number 375; the corresponding number in the table, or the correction, is  $15^{\circ}$ , and therefore the true heat of the fluid is  $490^{\circ}$ .

This correction may be had very easily without the help of the table, only by multiplying the number of degrees not immersed in the fluid by the supposed difference of heat, dividing the product by 10000, and diminishing the quotient by one-eighth part of the whole.

In the following pages we have thrown together the practical rules, which we would recommend to be observed in adjusting the fixed points of thermometers.

*Rules to be observed in adjusting the boiling point.*

The most accurate way of adjusting the boiling point is, not to dip the thermometer into the water, but to expose it only to the steam, in a vessel closed up in the manner represented in fig. 4. where *ABba* is the vessel containing the boiling water, *Dd* the cover, *E* a chimney made in the cover intended to carry off the steam, and *mm* the thermometer passed through a hole in the cover. Those who would make use of this method must take care to attend to the following particulars.

1<sup>st</sup>, The boiling point must be adjusted when the barometer is at 29.8 inches; unless the operator is willing to correct the observed point in the manner directed below.

2<sup>dly</sup>, The ball of the thermometer must be placed at such a depth within the pot, that the boiling point shall rise very little above the cover; for otherwise part of the quicksilver in the tube will not be heated, and therefore the thermometer will not rise to its proper height. The surface of the water in the pot also should be at least one or two inches below the bottom of the ball; as otherwise the water, when boiling fast, might be apt to touch the ball: but it does not signify how much lower than that the surface of the water may be.

3<sup>dly</sup>,

3dly, Care must be taken to stop up the hole in the cover through which the tube is inserted, and to make the cover fit pretty close, so that no air shall enter into the pot that way, and that not much steam may escape. A piece of thin flat tin plate must also be laid on the mouth of the chimney, so as to leave no more passage than what is sufficient to carry off the steam. The size of this plate should be not much more than sufficient to cover the chimney, that its weight may not be too great; and the mouth of the chimney should be made flat, that the plate may cover it more completely. It must be observed, that when the tin plate is laid on the mouth of the chimney, it will commonly be lifted up by the force of the steam, and will rattle till it has slipped aside sufficiently to let the steam escape without lifting it up. In this case it is not necessary to put the plate back again, unless by accident it has slipped aside more than usual. If the artist pleases, he may tie each corner of this plate by a string to prongs fixed to the chimney, and standing on a level with the plate, as thereby it will necessarily be kept always in its place<sup>(1)</sup>; but we would by no means recommend having it made with a hinge, as that might

(1) Fig. 3. is a perspective view of the chimney and tin plate; ABCD is the plate; E the chimney; Ff, Gg, Mm, and Nn, the prongs fastened to the chimney, to which the four corners of the plate are to be tied by the strings AF, BG, CM, and DN; the ends F, G, M, and N, of the prongs must be on a level with the plate, and the strings should not be stretched tight.

be apt to make it stick, in which case the included vapour might be so much compressed as to cause an error. We would also by no means advise lining the tin plate with leather, or any other soft substance, for the sake of making it shut closer, as that also might be apt to make it stick. The chimney also ought not to be made less than half a square inch in area: for though a smaller chimney would be sufficient to carry off the steam, unless the vessel is much larger than what we used; yet the adhesion which is apt to take place between it and the tin plate when wet, might perhaps bear too great a proportion to the power which the included steam has to lift it off, if it was made much less. It is convenient that the chimney be not less than two or three inches long, as thereby the observer will be less incommoded by the steam; but it would be improper to make it much longer, for the longer the chimney is, the greater disposition has the air to enter into the pot between it and the cover.

It is most convenient not to make the cover fit on tight, but to take on and off easily; and to wrap some spun cotton round that part of the cover which enters into the pot, in order to make it shut closer; or, what seems to answer rather better, a ring of woollen cloth may be placed under the cover, so as to lie between the top  
of

of the pot and it. These methods of making the cover shut close can be used more conveniently when the cover is made to enter within the pot, as in the figure, than when it goes on on the outside.

There are various easy ways by which the hole in the cover, through which the tube of the thermometer is passed, may be stopped up, and by which the thermometer may be suspended at the proper height. The hole in the cover may be stopped up by a cork, which must first have a hole bored through it, big enough to receive the tube, and be then cut into two, parallel to the length of the hole. Another method, more convenient in use, but not so easily made, is represented in fig. 6. which exhibits a perspective view of the apparatus; *Aa* is the cover; *H* the hole through which the thermometer is passed; *Bb* a flat piece of brass fixed upon the cover; and *DdEe* a sliding piece of brass, made so as either to cover the hole *H*, or to leave it uncovered as in the figure, and to be tightened in either position by the screw *s* sliding in the slit *mm*; a semi-circular notch being made in the edge *Bb*, and also in the edge *Dd*, to inclose the tube of the thermometer: pieces of woollen cloth should also be fastened to the edges *Bb* and *Dd*, and also to the bottom of the sliding piece *DdEe*, unless that piece and the cover are made sufficiently flat, to prevent the escape of the steam. In order

order to keep the thermometer suspended at the proper height, a clip may be used like that represented in fig. 7. which by the screw *s* must be made to embrace the tube tightly, and may rest on the cover. That part of the clip which is intended to bear against the tube, had best be lined with woollen cloth, which will make it stick tighter to the tube, and with less danger of breaking it. Another method, which is rather more convenient, when the top of the tube of the thermometer is bent into a right angle, in the manner frequently practised at present for the sake of more conveniently fixing it to the scale, is represented in the same figure; *GGFF* is a plate of brass, standing perpendicularly on the cover, and *LNN* a piece of brass, bent at bottom into the form of a loop, with a notch in it, so as to receive the tube of the thermometer, and to suffer the bent part to rest on the bottom of the loop; this piece must slide in a slit *kk*, cut in the plate *LNN*, and be tightened at any height by the screw *r*.

4thly, It is best making the water boil pretty briskly, as otherwise the thermometer is apt to be a great while before it acquires its full heat, especially if the vessel is very deep. The observer too should wait at least one or two minutes after the thermometer appears to be stationary, before he concludes that it has acquired its full height.

5thly, Though, as was said before, this appears to be the most accurate way of adjusting the boiling point; yet, if the operator was to suffer the air to have any access to the inside of the vessel, he would be liable to a very great error: for this reason we strongly recommend it to all those who use this method, not to deviate at all from the rules laid down without assuring themselves, by repeated trials with a pretty sensible thermometer, that such alteration may be used with safety. But the covering the chimney with the tin plate ought by no means to be omitted; for though, if the cover of the pot fits close, it seldom signifies whether the plate is laid on or not, yet, if by accident the cover was not to fit close, the omitting the tin plate would make a very great error. Making the chimney very narrow would not answer the end properly; for, if it was made so small as to make the vessel sufficiently close when the water boiled gently, it would not leave sufficient passage for the escape of the steam when the water boiled fast.

Another way of adjusting the boiling point is, to try it in a vessel of the same kind as the former, only with the water rising a little way, namely from one to three or four inches above the ball, taking care that the boiling point shall rise very little above the cover, as in the former method. In this method there is no need to cover  
the

the chimney with the tin plate; and there is less need to make the cover fit close, only it must be observed, that the closer the cover fits, the less the operator will be incommoded by the steam. The height of the barometer at which the boiling point should be adjusted, when this method is used, is  $29\frac{1}{2}$  inches, or three-tenths of an inch less than when the former method is used.

It will be convenient to have two or three pots of different depths; for if a short thermometer is to be adjusted in the same pot which is used for a long one, it will require a great depth of water, which, besides taking up more time before it boils, makes the observation rather less accurate, as the heat seems to be less regular when the depth of water in the pot is very great, than when it is less.

Perhaps some persons, for the sake of heating the water more expeditiously, may be inclined to use an apparatus of such kind that the fire shall be applied to a considerable part of the sides of the pot as well as to the bottom; we would, however, caution them against any thing of that kind, as the observations are considerably less regular than when little more than the bottom of the pot is heated. If the pot is heated over a chafing-dish or common fire, we apprehend that there can seldom be any danger of too much of the sides being heated;



but if the operator should be apprehensive that there is, it is easily prevented by fastening an iron ring an inch or two broad round the pot near the bottom. This precaution is equally necessary when the thermometer is adjusted in steam, especially when there is not much water in the pot.

The greatest inconvenience of this method of adjusting the boiling point is the trouble of keeping a proper depth of water in the pot, as to do this it is necessary first to find the height of the boiling point coarsely by trying it in an open vessel, and then to put such a quantity of water into the pot that it shall rise from one to three or four inches above the ball, when the thermometer is placed at such a depth within the pot that the boiling point shall rise very little above the cover. The operator must be very careful that the quantity of water in the pot be not so small as not entirely to cover the ball.

A third way of adjusting the boiling point is, to wrap several folds of linen rags or flannel round the tube of the thermometer, and to try it in an open vessel, taking care to pour boiling water on the rags, in order to keep the quicksilver in the tube as nearly of the heat of boiling water as possible. The best way is to pour boiling water on the rags three or four times, waiting a few seconds between each time, and to wait some seconds after the last

time of pouring on water before the boiling point is marked, in order that the water may recover its full strength of boiling, which is in good measure checked by pouring on the boiling water.

In this method the boiling point should be adjusted when the barometer is at 29.8 inches, that is, the same as when the first method is used; the water should boil fast, and the thermometer should be held upright, with its ball two or three inches under water, and in that part of the vessel where the current of water ascends<sup>(m)</sup>.

Whichever of these methods of adjusting the boiling point is used, it is not necessary to wait till the barometer is at the proper height, provided the operator will take care to correct the observed height according to the following table.

(m) In a vessel of boiling water one may almost always perceive the current of water to ascend on one side of the vessel, and to descend on the other.

Height of the barometer when the boiling point is adjusted according to,		Correction in 1000ths of the interval between 32° and 212°.		Height of the barometer when the boiling point is adjusted according to,		Correction in 1000ths of the interval between 32° and 212°.	
1st or 3d method.	2d method.			1st or 3d method.	2d method.		
	30.64	10	} lower.	29.69	29.39	1	} higher.
	53	9		58	28	2	
30.71	41	8		47	17	3	
59	29	7		36	06	4	
48	18	6		25	28.95	5	
37	07	5		14	84	6	
25	29.95	4		03	73	7	
14	84	3		28.92	62	8	
03	73	2		81	51	9	
29.91	61	1		70	—	10	
80	50	0		59	—	11	

To make use of this table, seek the height which the barometer is found to stand at in the left-hand column, if the boiling point is adjusted either in the first or third method, and in the second column if it is adjusted in the second method; the corresponding number in the third column shews how much the point of 212° must be placed above or below the observed point, expressed in thousandth parts of the interval between the boiling and freezing point: for example, suppose the boiling point

is adjusted in steam when the barometer is at 29 inches, and that the interval between the boiling and freezing points is 11 inches; the nearest number to 29 in the left-hand column is 29.03, and the corresponding number in the table is 7 higher, and therefore the mark of  $212^{\circ}$  must be placed higher than the observed point by  $\frac{7}{1000}$  of the interval between boiling and freezing, that is, by  $\frac{11 \times 7}{1000}$ , or .077 of an inch.

This method of correcting the boiling point is not strictly just, unless the tube is of an equal bore in all its parts; but the tube is very seldom so much unequal as to cause any sensible error, where the whole correction is so small. The trouble of making the correction will be abridged by making a diagonal scale such as is represented in fig. 5.

It is not very material what kind of water is used for adjusting the boiling point, so that it is not at all salt; only, if any kind of hard water is used, it is better that it should be kept boiling for at least ten minutes before it is used. But we would advise all those desirous of adjusting thermometers in the most accurate manner for nice experiments, to employ rain or distilled water, and to perform the operation in the first mentioned manner, that is, in steam.

*On the freezing point.*

In adjusting the freezing as well as the boiling point, the quicksilver in the tube ought to be kept of the same heat as that in the ball. In the generality of thermometers, indeed, the distance of the freezing point from the ball is so small, that the greatest error which can arise from neglecting this precaution is not very considerable, unless the weather is warmer than usual; but as the freezing point is frequently placed at a considerable distance from the ball, the operator should always be careful either to pile the pounded ice to such a height above the ball, that the error, which can arise from the quicksilver in the remaining part of the tube not being heated equally with that in the ball, shall be very small; or he must correct the observed point, upon that account, according to the following table :

Heat of the air.	Correction.
42°	.00087
52	.00174
62	.00261
72	.00348
82	.00435

The first column of this table is the heat of the air, and the second is the correction expressed in 1000th parts of the distance between the freezing point and the surface of the ice: for example, if the freezing point stands seven inches above the surface of the ice, and the heat of the room is 62, the point of  $32^{\circ}$  should be placed  $7 \times .00261$ , or .018 of an inch lower than the observed point. This correction also would be made more easy by the help of a diagonal scale, similar to that proposed for the boiling point.

*On the precautions necessary to be observed in making observations with thermometers.*

In trying the heat of liquors care should be taken that the quicksilver in the tube of the thermometer be heated to the same degree as that in the ball; or, if this cannot be done conveniently, the observed heat should be corrected on that account: but for this we refer to the former part, p. 835.

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*Winds*, a comparative view of them at Liverpool, during the years 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, p. 247—250. An abridged view of the winds at Bristol, for the year 1776, p. 354. State of the winds in London for each month throughout the same year, p. 358—381. Of the degrees and quantities of winds requisite to move the heavier kinds of wind-machines, p. 493. The proportion of winds of the second degree and upwards, to those of the first and below, for five years, p. 502. The proportion of winds of the third degree and upwards, to those of the second and below, for five years, p. 503. Effect of winds on the barometer, p. 751—753.

*Wind-machines*. Of the degrees and quantities of winds requisite to move the heavier kinds of wind-machines, p. 493—503.

*Wolf*, Dr. an account of the portrait of Copernicus, presented by him to the Royal Society, p. 33. See *Copernicus*.

*Woman*. An account of one in the shire of Ross, living without food or drink, p. 1. The disorder brought on by epileptic fits, p. 2, 3. Her eye-lids lost their natural power, *ibid.* *Menses* disappeared, and she monthly discharged blood from her mouth and nose, *ibid.* Took to her bed, and rejected food, p. 3. Totally refused food and drink, and her jaw became fast-locked, *ibid.* Lost her speech, p. 4, 5. Sensible of every thing that was said or done, p. 5. Swallowed nothing but two draughts of water

water for four years, *ibid.* No evacuation by stool, and scarcely any by urine, for three years, p. 5, 6. Her pulse distinct and regular, slow and small, p. 6. Countenance clear and pretty fresh, and her features neither disfigured nor sunk, *ibid.* Her body felt like that of a healthy young woman, *ibid.* Her knees bent, and ham-strings tight as a bow-string, *ibid.* She sleeps much and quietly, but keeps a constant whimpering when awake, p. 7. Her mouth soft and moist, *ibid.* State and condition of the patient five years after the above account was taken, p. 8. A few crumbs and a little moisture her only sustenance, *ibid.* Jaws still fast-locked, and she never attempts to speak, p. 9. Her ham-strings tight as before, and eyes shut, *ibid.* Her whole person rather emaciated, *ibid.* Still sensible and tractable in every thing, *ibid.* Great improvement in her looks and health, p. 11. Takes more food, *ibid.* The account of this woman authenticated, p. 10, 11.—An account of a hard substance extracted from a woman's groin, p. 461—463. Caused by a peg of wood which she had swallowed sixteen years before, p. 462. *z.*

*Wood.* An account of a hard substance extracted from a woman's groin, caused by a peg of wood which she had swallowed sixteen years before, p. 461—463. The effect of box-wood in experiments with the air-pump, p. 626, &c.

*Wool.* An account of the fine wool from which the shawls are made, p. 485. Produced from a Thibet sheep, *ibid.*

*Worm-bark* tree of Jamaica, its description and use, p. 507—512.

*Wright, Dr. William,* his description of the Jesuits' Bark-tree of Jamaica and the Caribbees, p. 504—506. His description and use of the cabbage-bark tree of Jamaica, p. 507—512.

*The End of the SIXTY-SEVENTH VOLUME.*

*The Number of PLATES in this Volume is TWENTY.*

The second, containing two different subjects, is marked Tab. II. at the Top, and Tab. III. below. The drawing of the eleventh Plate, having been sent in too late to be numbered in the regular series, is marked Tab. X̄.

The letter-press tables should be bound in upon guards by the middle, to avoid any folding out; and in those which must be looked at side-ways, the page should lie towards the right-hand.

## E R R A T A.

## Page Line.

- 58, 9. *for* communicate, *read* communicate,  
 85, 15. *for* XLVIII, *read* LIV.  
 128, 4. from the bottom, *for* "and not all" *read* "and not at all!"  
 131, 16 and 17. *for* (as the millers term it when no Iron is concerned) *read* (as the  
 millers term it) where no iron is concerned .  
 162, 6. *for* Satellites, *read* Satellite.  
 165, 9. *for* ineptats, *read* ineptas  
 258, 3. from the bottom, *for* but, *read* long  
 258, 2. from the botttom, *for* long, *read* but  
 354, 2. *for* the year 1775, *read* the year 1776.  
 475, 13. *for* creduiuity, *read* credulity  
 518, 7. from the bottom, *for*  $\frac{1}{2000}$  *read*  $\frac{1}{20,000}$ .  
 519, 7. *for*  $233^{\circ}, 54', 15''$  *read*  $233^{\circ}, 53', 15''$   
 520, 4. *insert*  $\angle c$  by 4th obsevation  $= 9^{\circ}, 59', 0'' - 9^{\circ}, 38', 15''$   
 521, 2. *for* mountains, *read* mountain.  
 522, 2. *for* correct for the signal  $59''$ , *read*  $54''$   
 530, 5. *for* 27,7025, *read* 25,7025  
 541, 4. *for* above at C. *read* above at B.  
 545, 11. *for* correct height in fathom 686,619, *read* 685,619  
 546, 8. *for* diffrence of Log. 654,157, *read* 654,109  
 547, 11. *for* (in p. 556), *read* (in p. 532)  
 556, 17. *for* two, *read* too  
 560, 1. *for* feet, *read* grains  
 18. *for* 13358,5, *read* 13558,5.  
 562, 12. *for* barometer, *read* manometer :  
 568, 5. from the bottom, *for*  $\overline{T-S} \times \overline{E-e} = S-x$ , *read*  $\frac{\overline{T-S} \times \overline{E-e} - \alpha}{E} = S-x$ .  
 569, 19. *dele* the semicolon after quantity, and *insert* it after instance  
 578, 5. from the bottom, *for* the attached Therm. *read* the two attached Therm.  
 585, 2. *read*, see p. 574 and 567  
 in the column for 25 inches, and against 21 *for* 53,2, *read* 53,1  
 586, 3. *add*, see p. 568 and 569  
 In the 4th col. of the table at the top, *for* 16,10, *read* 15,10.

Page Line

- 587, in the 2d col. against 19,90, *for* 12337,0, *read* 12377,8.  
20,70, *for* 11350,0, *read* 11350,8.
- 588, 30,4<sup>c</sup>, *for* 1236,8, *read* 1336,6  
in the last col. *for* 81,0, *read* 81,8.
- 597, 2. *for* uppermost, *read* approximate
- In plate XI. 1st col. of the table of the  $\angle$ ' and sides of the  $\Delta$ ' *for* *End of the base* 1. 2.  
*read* *End, of the base*, 1. 2.
- In the small scale of feet at the side of the section of the mountains *for* 1500, *read*  
15000 feet.
- 608, 3. *for* July, *read* August
- 628, 4. from the bottom *for* 159, *read* 152.
- 642, 13. *for* pistons were, *read* piston was
- 658, 10. *for* plate XVI. *read* plate XV.
- 662, 5. *for* plate XVII. *read* plate XVI.
- 683, 15. *after* inverse, *insert* ratio,
- 685, 5. a point *after* unaltered. *And for* but that in, *read* But in.
- 705, Tab. IV. 9th experiment, column 132° to 152°, *for* 9,14350, *read* 9,14550.
- 736, At the end of the note, *for* Barometer, *read* Barometers
- 777, 1774. December 10, weight of quicksilver to air, *for* 11445, *read* 10445.
- 781, 13th Station, observed superior barometer, *for* 25,691, *read* 25,961
- 785, 3d Observation at Belmont Castle, inferior equated barometer, *for* 29, 64,  
*read* 29,664
- 819, 7. *for* were the short, *read* were short
- 821, 5. *for* 15 *read* 16.

